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The Nation

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 24, 1911.

The Week

It is fairly to be said for President Taft's message vetoing the "Farmers' Free List" that it makes out a much better case than did his argument for refusing to sign the Wool bill. He is able to show that the measure was loosely drawn, so that its effect would, in some particulars, be highly doubtful and would lead to a great deal of litigation, while certain clauses were so carelessly constructed as to defeat their own end or to lead to absurdities. True, much the same could be said of the Dingley bill or the Payne-Aldrich law, both of which have given the lawyers endless business and taxed the courts to interpret them; and those acts were signed without hesitation. Yet Mr. Taft's criticisms have much force, and should be heeded when similar statutes are drafted in the future. And it is to be noted that the President uses a phrase, "conceding the wisdom of the general policy," which plainly intimates that he would favor an expansion of the free list—if only it were made in a different way, say, by a united Republican party.

The prompt passage of the new Statehood resolution is clearly a triumph for the President. By a vote of 53 to 8 in the Senate, and without even the formality of a roll-call in the House, Congress accepted Mr. Taft's terms for the admission of the last Territories in the continental United States. Arizona may now come in as soon as she drops the recall of judges from her Constitution, and New Mexico has only to decide by formal vote whether she will yield to the judgment of the representatives of her sister States who think her Constitution should be capable of amendment in an easier way. If she insists upon the present method, however, she will be admitted nevertheless. When one seeks the cause of this reversal of opinion by one branch of the Government at the instance of another, one finds it in the less prominent qualities of President Taft. Eager to conciliate, never spoiling for a fight, upon this occasion he forgot everything except the danger to what he regards as a vital principle of the government, and the result was a message that challenged attention for its reasoning no less than for its courage. It was one of the times when a powerful word powerfully spoken could turn the tide, and fortunately the President was willing to speak it. This revelation of the possibilities that lie open to a Chief Executive when he is in dead earnest must make even Mr. Taft regret that he did not similarly exert himself two years ago when the Payne-Aldrich tariff was crying out for a veto.

A careful study of the text of the arbitration treaties with Great Britain and France fails to show in what way the Senate is to be driven into delegating away its Constitutional powers in treaty-making. What is the greatly feared Joint Commission of Inquiry, and how is it to be constituted? Article II of the treaties declares that the high contracting parties "as occasion arises" shall appoint a commission of inquiry, and while the appointment of three commissioners by each side is recommended, that number is not made obligatory. Here, then, is no question of a permanent international commission of definite membership which may arrogate to itself powers hitherto exercised by the Senate. We are concerned with a special committee designated for the performance of a special task and passing out of existence as soon as its work is accomplished. There is nothing in the treaty to prevent the designation of one or more Senators as members of the Commission. And there is nothing in the treaties that compels the Senate to accept the findings of the Commission, except in form. It is true that if the Commission declares that the question at issue is justiciable, we are under the obligation to arbitrate. But the Senate, in fixing the conditions and limitations under which the arbitration tribunal is to arbitrate, may, if it choose, virtually nullify the Commission's recommendations.

The resolution offered by Senator Owen of Oklahoma, to investigate the causes of the panic of 1907, might possibly be regarded as an earnest endeavor to establish the facts regarding a great economic event if it were not for the Senator's own explanation of the purposes of the proposed inquiry. He believes, as he informed the Senate, that the panic resulted from "a deliberate conspiracy for enrichment of those who engineered it," that the engineering exploit was "treason against the United States," and that it "ought not to go unrebuked." The conclusion is possibly a bit lame, because treason is not "rebuked" by our statutes, but visited with capital punishment. This statement of the case rather tends, therefore, to turn the Senator's proposal into a joke. It is, however, a natural enough sequel to the theories of the La Follette school, whose view of political economy, so to speak, is strictly and exclusively anthropomorphic. It is quite inconceivable that our legislators should take seriously these vagaries of the Wisconsin and Oklahoma Senators. Yet one might almost wish that the formal inquiry should be made, and on precisely the lines proposed; for nothing short of the evidence which would surely and promptly be obtainable, from bankers, business men, and economic students, is likely to remove such foolishness from minds that entertain it.

The result of the election in Trenton bears out the claim that the commission form of government takes municipal affairs out of politics. Three of the commissioners chosen are Democrats, and two are Republicans. All of them are, or have been, officeholders. One is president of the Trenton harbor board, one is the street commissioner, one is an assessor, one is the city controller, and one has been city engineer. They go at their new task, therefore, with some experience in various lines of municipal service. Of more importance is the direct responsibility which they must feel to the mass of the citizens, who have selected them with such emphatic disregard of party affiliations. They could not have a greater incentive to give of their best to the city. All this is only saying that Trenton is still on the threshold of her new experiment in governing herself, although with excellent indications for its success. There will doubtless be more than one occasion when it will be necessary for her to

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remember that comparisons are to be justly made, not with an ideal government, but with that to which she has been accustomed. It ought not to be difficult for the commission to meet that test, particularly as its members cannot fail to recognize that other New Jersey communities will in some measure shape their opinions of the commission form of government in general from this first trial of it in the State.

The methods of industrial and accident insurance companies which are being condemned by the insurance commissioners of various States are evidently of a different and lower order of wrongdoing from those that were revealed in the life insurance investigation. To buy legislation is bad enough, but it is not so revolting as direct and systematic plundering of policy-holders in the adjustment of their claims. The offence is aggravated by the circumstance that in the main these persons, ironically termed "beneficiaries," are unfitted because of ignorance to make a stand for their rights. The widespread nature of the frauds is indicated by the disclosure that the company doing the second largest industrial business in the country is charged with employing the worst devices known to fleece its customers. The higher officers of this concern are declared to share in the ill-gotten gains of its agents. The ethical possibilities of modern business are illustrated by the fact that in 70 per cent. of its operations this company is found to be honest, but in the rest, which have to do with industrial and accident insurance, the temptation to take advantage of its patrons is too strong to be resisted. The insurance commissioners are to meet in convention at Milwaukee and are to receive a preliminary report of the investigation.

The death of the veteran Gamaliel Bradford removes a genuine patriot who made a substantial contribution to the science of government, and frequently, as in the anti-Imperialist agitation, gave an admirable illustration of his ability to stick to his guns even when most severely criticised. He was one of the growing number of men who believe that the failure to make our Cabinet responsible to Congress by giving them seats on the floor of the House is one of the great defects in our form of government, and to the advancement of this belief he gave much time and labor. It must frankly be admitted that the whole anti-Imperialist adventure in which this country has been engaged has furnished much experience to reinforce Mr. Bradford's contentions. Whether we shall ever obtain the radical reform he desired is a question which only time can answer. He was one of those unpaid servants of the people who was of especial use because he was fearless, superlatively honest, and as patriotically devoted to the public welfare as became a direct descendant in the eighth generation from Gov. Bradford of the Massachusetts Bay Colony.

Mr. Edison is an unconventional traveller. He is not only not ashamed to declare that this or that is surpassed by something of the same sort in America, but he is original enough to discover objects for admiration that have hitherto evaded the Baedeker-guided eyes of the ordinary tourist. Thus, if he hurts Parisian pride by depreciating remarks about the illumination of the Champs Elysées, he gives it new inspiration by praising French bread. Could candor and courtesy be more beautifully blended? It must seem passing strange to the chefs of the capital, accustomed to Americans who do not hesitate to point out the deficiencies of their finest concoctions, to behold one whose tastes are so nearly in accord with that Spartan simplicity lacking in those who most prominently represent us abroad. In one respect, the great inventor is at variance with multitudes of his countrymen. He is not disturbed by the heat that is oppressing Paris, but professes himself perfectly happy when the thermometer is at 90. Is this the reason why we have not been provided by him with a cheap and convenient device for lowering the temperature?

An interesting question as to the value of newspaper notoriety is raised by Mayor Gaynor's action in the matter of a new novel which the authorities of the New York Public Library have refused to put on their lists. The Mayor finds that the book is quite harmless, but very stupid. The question is whether this characterization will help or harm the book. It is a maxim among many publishers that condemnation for a new book is quite as desirable as approval, provided the book is talked about. Silence is the aspiring author's worst enemy. But while it may be profitable to have a novel vigorously characterized as very wicked or very youthful or very prejudiced or very ill-informed, does the magic power of notoriety go to the point where it helps the sale of a book to be called very stupid by some one prominent in the public eye?

The Advocate of Peace calls attention to a recent happening in the United States navy of far greater significance than the commissioning of the latest Dreadnought or the Delaware's preëminence in the Coronation naval review. In June last, virtually unnoticed, the little sheet-iron steamer Wolverine, for nearly seventy years known as the Michigan, and our sole naval protection on the Great Lakes, was struck from the active list and finally put out of commission. Built in Pittsburgh in 1843, she was taken piecemeal on ox-carts over the mountains, put together, and launched on December 5, her impressive armament being but one 18-pounder, and her crew ninety-six men. This one gun was all she could carry under the happy Rush-Bagot agreement, which forever prevented the arming of the boundary line between the United States and Canada. Dr. William Elliot Griffis has estimated the Michigan's service to civilization as far higher than those of the Constitution, despite the fact that almost her only crowded hour was when Confederates attempted to capture her in the civil war. The *Advocate of Peace* draws the proper moral from the Michigan's career:

> Why are the nations so reluctant to follow in their relations to each other such a conspicuous example of the success of limitation (one might almost call it annihilation) of armament as that furnished by the British-American disarmament on the Great Lakes? Disarmament on the Atlantic or any other ocean—mutual, of course—is just as practicable as disarmament on the Great Lakes, whenever the nations *think* so and decide to have it so.

The arguments of the Conservative leaders in the Canadian electoral campaign continue to manifest a deep-seated inconsistency to which we have called attention before this. Mr. Borden, leader of the Opposition, declares in a set speech, first, that the advantages of reciprocity would be with the United

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States farmer and not the Canadian, and, secondly, that "press and public in the United States believe firmly that Canadians would not be willing to go into the treaty were they not prepared for annexation; the treaty was therefore the beginning of the end of the British Empire." We may put aside the question as to where Mr. Borden and his followers have derived the impression that "the leading newspapers and statesmen of the United States" are unanimous in accepting reciprocity as the entering wedge for annexation. The problem is not what people in the United States think, but what the people of Canada think. Even Mr. Borden will not contend that annexation will come by armed invasion and conquest. Canada will have to be a consenting party to annexation. And what will win the Canadian people over to annexation? Why, this treaty of reciprocity which, as Mr. Borden declares, will benefit the people of the United States at the expense of the Canadian people. In other words, reciprocity, being a very bad bargain for Canadians, will make them fonder than ever of the people that got the best of them.

Every law that the Gomez Administration has passed has been subjected to the most searching inspection by these jackals, without pride of country or, where they were foreigners, a sense of decency to the country where they lived. The liberal laws of Cuba allow perfect freedom of the press. Newspapers are born and die in Cuba almost weekly. When the instrument of blackmail or preferment has served its purpose it is cast aside.

We quote from an impassioned appeal addressed to the American Secretary of War on occasion of his recent visit to Cuba, by the Havana *Post*, the only daily American newspaper in the island. Recent dispatches from Havana offer rather ironic comment on the liberal laws of Cuba and the perfect freedom of the press. The character of Señor Villaverde, for many years editor of the staid *Diario de la Marina*, does not lend itself to the suggestion of an unrestrained and unscrupulous gutter press. The simple fact of the matter would appear to be that Latin-American newspaper warfare reflects the exuberant methods of Latin-American politics. And yet, no matter to what excesses the anti-Administration partisan may resort, it is not for the Government to imitate. The Gomez Administration can either ignore criticism or punish it under the law. Arbitrary acts like the deportation of hostile editors will be interpreted by the outside world as confession.

Of the British railway strike, as of all strikes on a very large scale, it is apparent that the very magnitude of the movement enforces a speedy solution. Public opinion too often remains neutral in the strife between employers and workingmen; it needs such a temporary paralysis of the national life as Great Britain experienced for more than a day to rouse public opinion to self-assertion. British public opinion, through the Government now in power, has declared that neither employers nor workingmen shall be allowed to make the national welfare the football of their private contentions. The peaceful adjustment of a quarrel involving nearly a quarter-million workingmen is a tribute to the traditional English genius for compromise and conciliation. The grounds for compromise existed. It is pretty definitely established that the railway workers' demand for higher wages was justified. This is admitted by nearly all the Liberal organs of standing, which deplore at the same time the violence of the means adopted. Another grievance had to do with the workings of the industrial conciliation boards of 1907 which the strikers asserted were being used against them. Here, too, was a demand deserving of respectful consideration which the companies were wrong in summarily rejecting. At any rate, the suspension of hostilities has been received with such general satisfaction that we may regard a permanent settlement as pretty definitely assured.

There will be opened in Berlin on October 16, in the new Royal Library, a "German Institute" for the benefit of foreigners who may come to Berlin to study the language and the cultural life of Germany. It is not intended to be a learn-German-quick affair, but a serious institution manned by teachers of the higher schools of the capital and by docents of the university, with the main purpose of familiarizing foreigners who have graduated from colleges or universities at home, not only with the language, but through the language with the intellectual achievements of the nation, and this in as short a space of time as possible. There will be practical instruction for small groups, lectures on German literature, art, science, and institutions, excursions to other cities and intelligent guidance through the Berlin galleries and museums. Each semester will last eight weeks, and the tuition fee is to be only $25 for the period. The Government thinks so highly of the idea that the undertaking rejoices in official patronage and supervision, and the university authorities are also deeply interested. The idea is to see to it that the intelligent foreign visitors who really want to make use of their time shall be given a proper appreciation of Germany's intellectual greatness and aspirations, so that they may in turn on their arrival at home be able to interpret Germany properly to those whom they may influence. In other words, it is another striking move toward doing away with that ignorance of Germany which at bottom is responsible for much foreign ill-will and distrust.

A Shanghai journal laments that all that it has to show for its long list of notable visits and festivities is a Jubilee fountain and a Nursing Home. It mentions, nevertheless, one great benefit from them. Each nationality represented in the Chinese city in turn takes the lead in welcoming guests whom it delights to honor, and this makes for international good-feeling. Thus, the first of royal blood to be attracted to the Model Settlement was the Duke of Edinburgh, who came in 1869. A dozen years later the present King of England and his elder brother saw the city as midshipmen. They were not their own masters, however, and, owing to their captain's severe curtailment of the reception that was awaiting them, they found themselves limited to a dance at the Consulate and a run up the country. In 1890 came the Duke and Duchess of Connaught. Of the German notables Prince Henry is best remembered. Then there have been the Duke of Genoa, Prince Fushimi, four Manchu princes, one reigning monarch, King Kalakaua of Hawaii, Gen. Grant, and Secretary Taft. An historical pageant in Shanghai is unique in variety. It is a veritable parade of the nations. One can understand the pride with which the Shanghai writer closes his account with the words: "No other place has such a record."

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TAFT AND CLEVELAND, 1893 AND 1911.

The close of the long and tedious extra session of Congress suggests comparisons with the one called by President Cleveland in 1893. At least one close analogy stands out: the great Administration measure, in either case, was carried only by the votes of the opposing party. Eighteen years ago the repeal of the silver-purchase act, demanded by a Democratic President, was enacted with Republican support which was indispensable, just as a Republican President has now been able to get through Congress the bill for Canadian reciprocity by means of Democratic assistance, without which he would have completely failed, as he himself has handsomely acknowledged. In both these Congresses the party in power was badly split, a large fraction refusing to follow its own President. In 1893 this rupture foretokened bitter contests and prolonged divisions within the party, and ultimate defeat. It would be rash to predict confidently that the Republican break-up of 1911 will have similar consequences next year, yet no candid friend of Mr. Taft's can be blind to the political danger of the open dissensions in the Republican party which have broken out under his Administration.

Political parallels are seldom so complete as they look to the casual eye. Analogies in politics should never be pressed till they drip blood. The efforts put forth by President Cleveland to prevent the country from going to the silver standard were immensely more important than those of President Taft to procure reciprocity with Canada. The latter measure we do not underestimate. It is significant both in itself and in what it portends. Credit to President Taft for his initiative in devising this breach in the walls of protection and for his courage in pounding away at it, we have not withheld, nor shall we seek to minimize it. But it remains true that the struggles in Congress this year have been neither so dramatic nor so critical as those in 1893. Then it was a case, not of making a slight reduction in tariff taxes, or of breaking with the past of a political party, but of saving the nation from a well-nigh irretrievable financial disaster.

Another marked difference lies in the condition of business, then and now. In 1893 the country was entering upon a period of intense and alarming depression. Apprehension and dissatisfaction reigned on every hand. And the state of the public mind was such as to fasten itself intently upon the particular legislation which the President was urging upon Congress, with the result that passion ran high and debate was furious. The entire contest seemed titanic at the time, and appears scarcely less so as we coolly look back at it across the years. It was the economic circumstances of the country that then intensified everything, and caused the struggle in Congress to be watched with a jealous public interest far beyond anything which we have witnessed this year. President Taft has been much more luckily situated, in this respect, than was President Cleveland. This year the great experiment of an Executive flinging himself upon Congress and winning from his opponents the support which his own followers denied him, could be carried out in comparative calm. We have seen little this time of the violent waves of feeling which swept over the land in 1893.

Politically, the comparison of the Silver Democrats and the Populists of 1893 with the Insurgent Republicans of 1911 is somewhat misleading. We do not refer to questions of the ability or sincerity of the dissidents, but to their party affiliations and their political strength. The Silver Democrats were more powerful than the Insurgent Republicans. The former kept on fighting, with the aim of obtaining control of their party organization, and finally got it. And as allies they had a third party, just then at the flood tide of its success. The Populists won 22 electoral votes in the election of 1892, and polled a popular vote of more than 1,000,000 —one-fifth as many as that of the Democratic party. Here was certainly an element much more potent for revolt than anything now discernible in the movement of the Insurgent Republicans. The latter still profess themselves loyal to the old party, and as the months pass it becomes more and more unlikely that they will ever think of flocking by themselves.

Long before the troubles of 1893 burst upon him, Mr. Cleveland gave remarkable evidence of his political sagacity in a letter to Mr. Lamar. Therein he distinctly predicted the coming of the silver crisis in his party, and looked forward to an Administration harassed and unsuccessful in consequence. One wonders if anybody has in his possession a private letter from Mr. Taft, reading the future with equally clear vision and with like equanimity? Has the President fully counted the cost of driving a wedge, at once into the sacred doctrine of protection and into his own party, by his policy of Canadian reciprocity and his announced purpose to insist upon an early revision of the tariff, schedule by schedule? If he has given his mind seriously to the subject, he must have had many sober, and possibly a few amused, thoughts as he has looked forward to the drafting of the Republican platform next year, and his renomination by men many of whom will believe that his election is impossible and some that it is highly undesirable.

A MISTAKEN VETO.

A man who is haunted by a sense of inconsistency, and who fears that he is giving color to a charge of insincerity, cannot write in an energetic and persuasive manner. That is the explanation, it seems to us, of President Taft's halting performance in his message vetoing the wool bill. Even Republicans who desired him to write it admit that it is weak and inconclusive, but what could they expect? In this matter of the wool duties, Mr. Taft was in an exceedingly awkward predicament. He had boldly declared that the existing rates are "indefensible," yet he now appears as their defender, or at least as the official by whose sole act they are kept in force indefinitely. Declaring two years ago that they should have been lowered then, he apologized for failure to do so on the ground that "a combination of representatives from the manufacturing and wool-growing sections of the East and West had a majority in Congress that was overwhelming." But now that combination has been broken up. A majority in either House that was non-partisan and stood for the interest of the consuming masses has done what President Taft asserted in 1909 should have been done then, yet he dashes their work to the ground by his veto! The bill may not have been perfect. Much has been made of La Follette's offhand statement that it was put together "with blacksmith's tools." But

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they are better than the burglar's tools with something very like which the woollen schedule was got into the Payne-Aldrich act.

The horse on which the President seeks to ride away is "scientific revision." We must be judicially minded and get all the facts before us, especially must determine to a hair's breadth the difference in cost of production at home and abroad, before doing anything. Yet without anything of all that, Mr. Taft was ready to assert two years ago and, in fact, does it in this very message, that he believes the Payne-Aldrich wool duties to be excessive. How does he know this, inasmuch as the Tariff Board has not yet reported and until it does we are not supposed to know anything? Why, he knows it, of course, just as does any man with common sense, by a mere glance at the outrageous duties now exacted. The President states that the average existing rates on cloths are 97 per cent. and on wearing apparel 81 per cent. If manufacturers cannot get along without such exorbitant protection, with its resulting taxes weighing so heavily on the poor, then, as Representative Redfield said in his speech on June 12, they ought to turn their factories over to men with brains enough to run them. We need no one to come from the dead to tell us that a tax of 100 per cent. on clothing is a gross injustice, or that cutting it in two is an act of justice. Nor is it true that Congress did the cutting wholly in the dark. Early in June the House asked for all the information about the woollen schedules in the possession of the Tariff Board, and the President ordered it sent. It was not complete, of course, but so far as it went, the Ways and Means Committee had the advantage of it. Mr. Taft is able to point out no lack of "science" in their use of it, or in the framing of their bill, yet he nevertheless exercises his veto.

This he cannot do without plunging into the old slough of protection. He recites the fact that the platform on which he was elected was protectionist. This from the President who has just forced through the Canadian reciprocity agreement! The argument he uses against the wool bill could be used, in fact, was used, against that measure. And Mr. Taft, falling into the out-worn language of the high-tariffites, talks about the need of giving the woollen manufacturer "a duty to protect him against foreign competition with cheap labor." But this is to beg the whole question. How does the President know, in advance of the report of the Tariff Board on cost of production, that our well-paid labor is not the most efficient and, therefore, really the cheapest? On this point, the President would have done well to consider some of the actual instances adduced by Congressman Redfield. We cite one of them:

> Last January I was in the city of Tokio, and a friend who was with me took a large contract, by the way, from the Japanese Imperial State Railways, in open competition with Germany and England, for several million dollars' worth of locomotives. That gentleman went to the head of the locomotive shops of the Imperial Railways, and the Japanese master mechanic said to him: "We can make locomotives much cheaper than you can in America. We have American equipment, and we can produce them for less than you can." "Can you?" inquired my friend. "If so, let us get at the facts. If you will tell me from your cost sheets precisely what your locomotives cost I will tell you what ours cost." And, by the way, he said: "What makes you think that your locomotives cost less than ours?" "Why," he said, "because we only pay one-fifth the wages to our men that you pay to yours."
>
> So they got out the cost books, and they found that the fact was that the labor cost for locomotives on the same specifications was three and one-half times greater in the Japanese shop than in the American shops. And that is a perfectly normal fact and not an abnormal one.

The President expresses the purpose, and we do not doubt that he honestly entertains it, to urge a revision of the wool schedules upon Congress at the next session. Indeed, he speaks of adjourning revision by his veto "only ninety days," as if the presentation of the Tariff Board's report and the framing and enactment of a bill would be simultaneous. But in this Mr. Taft is pinning his hopes to two great uncertainties. One of them is the success of the plan to determine accurately the cost of production at home and abroad. As a practical manufacturer, Mr. Redfield asserts that this cannot be done in a way to fix a scientific basis for tariff legislation, since the cost will necessarily vary not only from place to place but from time to time in the same place. "Base a tax upon the January cost, and it is altogether altered by July, and by December it may be three times the difference in foreign cost." "Every manufacturer knows these things and lives up to them every day." Granting, however, that Professor Emery and his associates may work out a passable estimate of the cost of production, how can President Taft be sure that Congress will act upon it? The Presidential election will be impending; party plans and platforms will be in the making; the Republicans will be preparing to go in again with a whoop for protection, and the campaign managers making ready to fry the fat out of the manufacturers once more. What chance, under those circumstances, will tariff revision have, no matter how solemnly it may be labelled "scientific"? Instead of Mr. Taft's "ninety days," we are much more likely to have ninety weeks.

In our opinion, the President has made a great mistake. He has disappointed the just expectations of the country. For the sake of dubious relief in the future, he has sacrificed an assured present relief. Politically, he has made a present to the Democrats of a telling issue and a golden opportunity.

"DEALING WITH FACTS."

Mr. Roosevelt concludes his complacent review, in last week's *Outlook*, of his course in authorizing the Steel Trust to absorb the Tennessee Coal and Iron Company, with the assertion, "I dealt with the facts." The assumption is that to ascertain facts and act upon them is the easiest thing in the world. Principles may be cloudy and ideals escape us, but when you have a big, brutal set of facts before you, how can you go wrong? Everybody who stops to think, however, knows that dealing with facts is one of the most delicate operations of the human mind. There is, in the first place, the enormous difficulty of making sure that the facts are as stated to us by others. Next comes the arduous duty of avoiding that "instinctive theorizing," whence the fact looks to the eye as the eye likes the look. And in the end there is the obligation to decide what is the correct inference to be drawn from the facts, once granted that they are clearly established. To say in defence of challenged conduct, "I dealt with the facts," is no defence at all unless you are able to show that you first got your facts straight and then dealt with them properly.

A highly instructive contrast to Mr. Roosevelt's way of doing whatever he was asked to do in a time of financial

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panic, is furnished in the recently published Life of Lord Goschen. He was Chancellor of the Exchequer at the time of the Baring failure and the threatened panic in 1890, and the extracts now first published from his diary and letters not only throw new light upon that affair but show how a trained and conscientious official met the crisis. Goschen, too, had the "facts" laid before him, just as Messrs. Frick and Gary presented them to President Roosevelt. We cite from the Chancellor's diary at the time:

> Sunday, November 9.—. . . Mysterious letter from Governor of the Bank, hoping I should be in town early to-morrow—very alarming. Monday, November 10.—To the Governor of the Bank. Found him in a dreadful state of anxiety. Barings in such danger that unless aid is given, they must stop. —— came in while I was there; almost hysterical. Governor and he both insisted that the situation could only be saved if Government helped. They must be helped by four millions. Bank would give one million, if Government would give the same. Others such as Rothschilds, Glyns, and banks must find the remainder. Picture drawn of the amount of acceptances held by various banks, which would have to stop. All houses would tumble one after the other. All credit gone. I entirely understood their reasoning, but remembering action taken in France when Comptoir d'Escompte was in difficulties, I said the great houses and banks in London must come together and give the necessary guarantee. This was declared impossible if the Government didn't help. From Bank I went to ——, hoping to induce them to come forward. I found —— and —— in a blue funk, very much demoralized. —— suggests the Government should say that they would save Barings. Preposterous! —— less wild, but said everything "must go to crash unless Government helped." I alone could save the situation. He wouldn't believe in the possibility of a guarantee fund without Government help. . . .

There could hardly be a clearer case of the "facts" being brought to the attention of a responsible official by the very highest financial authorities. But how did Goschen "deal" with them? He denied, in the first place, that they were the facts. In the second place, he withstood all the pressure to induce the Government to intervene where it had no business to step in, and insisted that *haute finance* pull itself out of its own quagmire, as, in fact, it presently did without any Government aid whatever. But, then, Goschen was a man who knew something about finance, and, besides, had some firm convictions about governmental duty which he would not lightly set aside at the request of financial magnates.

Behind the ex-President's avowal, or glorifying, concerning this particular occurrence, there is evidently a conviction on his part very like the one he evinced when he wrote to Mr. Harriman, "You and I are practical men." This is the creed of the political realist. No fine abstractions for him; only "the facts." It is the doctrine which Bismarck implied when he said that for a public man to cling to "principles" would be like trying to run along a narrow path through the woods with a long pole held crosswise in his mouth. This is a materialistic age, and the men who are most successful in it are those with a keen eye for the physical things that bulk largest. So it is that the triumphant assertion, "I dealt with the facts," comes as a kind of confession of faith in stark power and a worship of force.

In this, too, it cannot be denied that Mr. Roosevelt is a child of his time. Business and the professions are filled with men who take for their guide the maxim that one must deal with the facts. That moral considerations, that character, ideals, an heroic sense of duty, self-sacrifice for a cause, can ever be ranked as facts to be recognized, these men do not concede. When they say "facts," they mean gas or electricity, stocks or money. New York had an illustration of this brutalizing way of "recognizing the facts" in the career of the late John W. Gates. When he first descended upon this city, and for some years after, he was thought of mainly as an unscrupulous gambler. Leading financiers spoke of him as a dangerous man, to be shunned as well as despised. It was long before he dared to address himself to the most respectable houses. But finally his audacity and the very magnitude of his success as a "plunger" made him seem to be a power that could not be ignored; and so we had the infinitely demoralizing spectacle of Gates deferred to by leaders in the financial world, toadied to by a certain section of the press, and erected into a typically "successful" American. That is what comes of dealing with the facts. But the process and the result are such as to sicken one who believes that honor or self-respect is a "steel-cold fact" as truly as unlimited credit or the most boundless political power, and to make him pray Heaven for men who will refuse at any cost to prostrate themselves before grossly material facts which only trample their natures down into "congenial mud."

PUBLIC WORK WITHOUT PAY.

In introducing his bill for paying salaries to members of the House of Commons, the Chancellor of the Exchequer spoke of the bad effects of working for the public without pay. This was partly by way of reply to the resolution against the change, moved by Mr. Lee, which asserted that payment of members would be "an indefensible violation of the principle of gratuitous public service." But that principle itself Mr. Lloyd George declared to be ill-founded. "Why should the administration of the laws be paid for and the making of laws be necessarily gratuitous?" Moreover, argued the Chancellor, gratuitous public work leads straight to bureaucracy. "Take the bench of magistrates. There the work is gratuitous. But who really does the work? Why, the clerk to the magistrates. Where you have a mayor who performs gratuitous service, the work is getting more and more into the hands of the Town Clerk." Lloyd George gravely argued that it was demonstrably bad for the country "to get too much gratuitous work of this kind."

If this peril be great, it must be said that democracies do their best to avert it. We believe that there is a statute of the United States forbidding any man to work for the government without pay. This was doubtless an expression of the jealousy of Congress. It did not propose to leave it to the Executive to fill any offices which it had not created and over which, by forcing the Executive to come to it for the money for salaries, it could exercise a certain measure of control. But the darkest pessimists about our political conditions could not aver that we are suffering from too much gratuitous public service. In the Federal administration, as well as in the work of our States and cities, the rule seems to be that, while duties may be permissive, salaries are absolutely mandatory. If there is any rush of citizens to work for their country for nothing, the press has failed to report it. The zeal for public service which we do witness is of the sort that the French have come to call *empléomanie*, and this thinks of a "place" mainly for what it pays, and is entirely willing to take the cash and let the credit go.

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On the main question of making the radical change of paying members of the House of Commons, there is, of course, much to be said of more weight than the alleged harmful results of gratuitous service. The old theory of the gentlemen of England meeting for a few weeks of the year to dispatch the nation's business has plainly broken down. The labor of Parliament has become intenser and more exacting. Sessions are more frequent and more prolonged, and the matters pressed upon the attention of the House of Commons are yearly more complicated and difficult. Doubtless there are still large numbers of capable Englishmen ready to sacrifice their time and pay their own expenses as members of Parliament, but the example of other countries, and the growing pressure in behalf of poor men with talent for public life, it has long been felt, would make the paying of Parliamentary salaries inevitable. As one of the Labor representatives, Mr. Ramsay MacDonald, said in the House, members without fortune or members not the sons of rich men, have "to live by their wits, by becoming directors of companies," or in other ways. And since the Osborne judgment made it unlawful for workingmen's unions to vote any part of their funds in payment of the expenses of their Parliamentary representative, the voting of a small salary to all members appeared to be the only way in which there could be Labor members. The change will seem an immense break with a theory and a tradition venerable with age, but England has been compelled to undergo many such shocks in recent years, and will survive without any real fear that the universal smash is at hand.

What is said either in England or this country about working for the public for nothing applies, of course, to official positions. The amount of non-official service patriotically rendered in both nations is very great and of the highest value. This has often been dwelt upon, and is one of the most hopeful things in our public life. That there are increasing numbers of men in our country able and willing to devote time and energy to all forms of civic activity, without pay and without hope of reward except in helping to get good work done, is a source both of strength and encouragement. Of the benefits that come through such means, we have before our eyes at this moment a vivid example in the discussions now going on concerning the proposed new charter for New York. Societies by the score and individuals by the hundred have come forward in the most gratifying way to do what they conceive to be a public duty. How much more the city owes to such men—the lawyers, bankers, educators, clergymen, philanthropists, and business men who have flung themselves unselfishly into this important contest—than to those it officially pays!

WHEN DOCTORS DISAGREE.

The Dean of the medical college of New York University was giving testimony before the commissioner in the case of Health Officer Doty, when some one brought up the practice of fumigation. Fumigation, declared this medical authority, is a delusion and a fraud born in superstition and fostered by the ignorant or unscrupulous for gain. This opinion ran parallel, almost word for word, with Bernard Shaw's declaration on the same subject in the preface to "The Doctor's Dilemma." The burning of sulphur in sick-rooms, our best-known iconoclast asserts, is about as efficacious as the practice of exorcism, of which it is a modern variant, differing only in the accompanying evil smell. When Mr. Shaw makes a heterodox assertion on a scientific topic, no great shock is imparted to common belief; if anything, the tendency is to believe more firmly what Mr. Shaw denies. But when a physician of high standing puts his foot through a common sanitary practice the result is bewilderment.

The fact is that the science and practice of medicine are being severely manhandled in the house of its friends. More destructive than the assaults of revolutionaries, Christian Scientists, and New Thought practitioners are the startling denials emanating from, or attributed to, well-known men within the profession. A few years ago Dr. Osler was widely quoted as maintaining that, with the exception of two drugs, mercury and castor oil, our entire pharmacopœia might as well be pitched overboard. Dr. Osler was doubtless misquoted, but the harm was done. The statement was seized upon with great glee by the opponents of orthodox medical doctrine and reiterated in season and out, with the result that many sober citizens must have been shaken. Mr. Shaw's bitter comments upon the bloodthirstiness of surgeons have been echoed by men eminent in the field of surgery. Respectable authority can be cited against the anti-toxin treatment for diphtheria, as also against vaccination. Hence we find ourselves in this peculiar situation: while newspapers and platform orators continue to boast of new advances made by men in the conquest of disease and death, physicians and experts frequently throw scorn upon the most cherished medical beliefs.

Subversive statements like that of the Dean on fumigation suggest the need of a universal congress of doctors at which the fundamentals of medical science might receive definite formulation, or at least full and authoritative discussion. Such a congress might be unsuccessful in drafting a creed, but it would supply thinking men with an opportunity to form a rational creed for themselves. In such a congress all schools of medicine and anti-medicine should be represented, but a fixed programme should prevent debate from ranging over the entire field of medical inquiry. We are not concerned with problems that are still in the experimental state. Consumption cures, cancer cures, opsonian treatment, anti-typhoid inoculation, radium therapy, starvation, the behavior of alcohol—these things the layman is content to leave to the experts until the experts themselves attain something like a common agreement. What an Ecumenical Medical Congress could thresh out for us would be the problems which the great majority of men to-day regard as completely solved.

We are aware that controversy is not lacking among the doctors. But chiefly it is controversy carried on in the seclusion of specialist publications of which the results never reach the general public, or reach it in mutilated, distorted, or, at best, fragmentary form. The great public takes its medical knowledge from the Sunday supplements, from which they learn successively that science can now create life, that bathing does more harm than good, that a cure for tuberculosis is near at hand, that X-ray therapy kills more people than it saves, that tuberculosis is on the increase, that cancer will soon be checked, that diphtheria is on the increase, that cancer is on the increase, that hydrophobia is on the increase and

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the Pasteur cure is a fraud, that organic diseases can be cured by starvation; that starvation leads to madness and death. It is a welter of credulity and rumor that would be laughable if it did not so intimately concern the lives and the health and even the spiritual well-being of the community. For it is a fact that people will stake their own lives and health, and those of persons dear to them, on vagaries, wild assertions, and equally wild denials. And because every vagary or superstition always associates with itself some name high in authority, the mischief thrives the more.

Until a universal medical congress for the enlightenment of laymen can be assembled, why might not one of our enterprising newspapers set in motion an inquiry into the subject on a large scale? A detailed *questionnaire* might be addressed to a couple of thousand representatives of medical thought in every one of its phases, the world over. Such a list of questions should aim to set down in plain terms how expert opinion is divided on important matters. Is vaccination desirable? Will cleanliness prevent the transmission of disease? What is the case for the vaccines and the serums? What about food, alcohol, tobacco, sleep, exercise? What about exertion and fatigue? Simple questions these, but questions on which enormous divergences of opinion continually manifest themselves. What we want is a definitive pronouncement partaking of the nature of a creed. There would be dissenters and heretics, no doubt. But even then we should be better off than we are.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

In John Payne Collier's "Account of the Rarest Books in the English Language" there is a description of Sir George Peckham's pamphlet "A True Reporte of the late discoveries and possessions, tak n in the right of the Crowne of Englande, of the Newfound Landes. By that valiant and worthye Gentleman, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, Knight," printed in England in 1583, and some extracts are made from the preliminary verses which precede the narrative. Collier's copy, from which his description seems to have been made, at the sale of his library in 1884, brought £210 and was bought by the late Charles H. Kalbfleisch. After his death, by gift of Alexander Maitland, it passed into the Lenox Library, and it is now one of the books displayed in the exhibition cases in the new library. There are two copies in the British Museum, one being imperfect, but, though the book is mentioned by both Lowndes and Sabin, until a few months ago no other example could be traced. A copy which was sold by Sotheby, Wilkinson & Hodge last March, bringing £300, is now in a private library in New York; a comparison with the New York Public Library copy shows that, in part at least, the types were twice set. The textual difference seems to be only in the preliminary matter, there being nine preliminary leaves in the new copy and only seven in the library copy. The title and dedication (to Sir Francis Walsingham) are alike, apparently, in both. "The Table of the Chapters" has been reprinted, the first line ending "con-" in one copy and "contai-" in the other.

Then follow, in the Public Library copy, as described by Collier, and partly reprinted by him, commendatory poems by Sir William Pelham, Sir Francis Drake, M. John Hawkins, Maister Captaine Bingham, Maister Captaine Frobisher, Mathew Roydon, and Master Anthony Parkhurst, filling six pages, the verses by Frobisher and Roydon being on one page. In the newly discovered copy the Frobisher verses have a page to themselves, those by Roydon are transferred to the next page, and with them is a new poem by Maister Captaine Chester, and following all are two new poems by Arthur Hawkins and John Achelley, each occupying a full page. The verso of the last preliminary leaf is blank.

The text of the book was reprinted by Hakluyt, and so is well known. At the end, filling five unnumbered pages, is "The Contentes of the Articles of Assurance, betweene the Principall assignes of Sir Humfrey Gilbert Knight, and the four sortes of adventurers, with them in the voyage for the Western Discoveries." These leaves differ slightly in the two copies. The first page in the public library copy has the catchword "just," while in the other copy it has "portion."

Not solely on account of its rarity but also on account of its intrinsic importance would this book take a high rank in any collection of Americana. Gilbert was granted his first patent by Queen Elizabeth on June 11, 1578. He did not, however, put foot upon American soil until August 4, 1583, when he landed at St. Johns, Newfoundland. On the next day he took possession of the land "in the right of the Crowne of England by digging of a Turfe and receiving the same with a Hasell wande delivered unto him after the manner of the lawe and custome of England." That event is recorded in this book by Peckham. Nor was Gilbert with his four ships alone, for we are here informed that the fishing fleet in St. John Haven "Englishmen and Strangers" were "in number betweene thirty and fortie sayle." On September 9, 1583, Captain Edward Hay arrived in England, but, in his words "of Sir Humfrey as yet, we heare no certaine newes." Gilbert had sailed in the smaller boat, the "little Frigat," the Squirrell, "seeming to him most fitt to discover and approche the Shoare," and the boat had gone down in a storm. The pamphlet was distributed to induce settlers, but like so many other first efforts at colonization, nothing came of it.

The laudatory verses by such voyagers as Sir Francis Drake, Martin Frobisher, and John Hawkins, the last two not yet knighted, are of great interest. Drake had returned three years before from his circumnavigation of the earth, Frobisher had made three voyages to the Arctic regions, and Hawkins, pioneer Englishman in the slave trade, had suffered adventures of many kinds on the coast of Africa, in the West Indies, and on the Spanish Main. We do not often think of these men as poets. We may, however, quote here the six lines by Frobisher:

A pleasaunt ayre, a sweete and fertill soile,
A certaine gaine, a never dying praise,
An easie passage void of lothsome toile
Found out by some, and knowen to mee the waies:
All this is there, then who will refraine to trie,
That loves to live abroade, or dreades to die?

Correspondence

MORE RECORDS OF THE FEDERAL CONVENTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The publication recently of Max Farrand's compilation of the "Records of the Federal Convention of 1787" adds interest to two papers which have been discovered since the book appeared and are now in the Library of Congress. They were a part of Madison's notes, but, becoming separated from the main groups of his papers, passed to the auction room a few weeks ago after seventy-five years of obscurity. They relate to George Mason's participation in the work of the Convention, and are contemporaneous with the meeting. Both were annotated by Madison in his old age, when he was arranging his papers for posthumous publication. The one which I shall give first has this note at the top:

Paper in the handwriting of Col. George Mason & without date; probably handed tc Mr. Madison on the 31 May when the subject was under debate.

This is in the hand of John C. Payne, Madison's brother-in-law, who acted as his amanuensis for many years after his retirement at Montpelier, and under his direction transcribed The Madison Papers which were published in 1840. The paper follows:

In the choice of the Senate, there is a material Differrence between classing differrent Districts of the same State for the choice of Deputies or Sub-electors, to appoint the Senators for their State; & classing together differrent States for that purpose—in the latter mode, there wou'd be confusion, by blending together, in the choice, the Representations of differrent States.—The principal objection to each State's choosing separately, seems to be in the Danger of making the Senate too numerous; as the smallest State must have an integral Vote in the Senate & the larger States in proportion.—

Might not this objection be obviated, by apportioning duly the Representation to each State, giving the smaller States an Integer, & confining the larger States to sending a smaller number of Senators than their proportion, to deliver their due number of votes? This method wou'd perhaps be exceptionable in the first Branch of the Legislature; but the objections do not apply, with equal Force, to the Senate.

These observations were written on the third day after the Convention got to work, the Virginia resolutions having been introduced on May 29. The Convention had resolved that a national government, consisting of a supreme executive, legislative, and judiciary ought to be established, and that the Legislature ought to have two chambers. It had agreed that one cham-

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ber ought to be elected by the people; and had then considered the clause of the Virginia plan which provided "that the members of the second branch of the national Legislature ought to be elected by those of the first, out of a proper number of persons nominated by the individual Legislatures, to be of the age of —— years at least"; etc.

The idea that representation in the Senate as well as the House should be proportioned on the population and wealth of the States had already been submitted to the Convention and passed over, although it was evidently relished by a majority of the members; but the debate showed that nobody had as yet formed a definite notion of how the second chamber should be constituted. According to Pierce's notes George Mason opposed election of members of the second branch by members of the first branch, because this would cause delay and expense in filling up vacancies and would make that branch too dependent upon the first branch; and Charles Pinckney said he meant to propose to divide the continent into four divisions, out of which a certain number of persons should be nominated, and out of these nominations to appoint a Senate. Some such idea was running through Madison's mind, for, when Wilson proposed that Senators might be elected by uniting several election districts, he said it would destroy the influence of the smaller States associated with larger ones in the same district, as the Senator would always be chosen from a larger State. The plan of government of Virginia, drawn up by George Mason in 1776, had provided for an upper house of the Assembly, to consist of twenty-four members to represent twenty-four districts formed from the counties. Each county when electing its two members of the lower house was at the same time to choose twelve sub-electors who were to choose a member of the upper house for the district. Mason's memorandum, handed to Madison during or immediately after the debate, shows that the Virginia delegates had been experimenting with this idea in a modified form for the Federal upper house, but that Mason thought election to both houses might better be by the States than by districts, and that he was not in accord with this part of the Virginia plan.

The second memorandum is in Madison's hand and is endorsed by him as follows:

The within paper communicated to Js. Madison Jr by Docr McHenry March 16, 1788, with a note subjoined that it was given by Mr Mason to one of ye Maryland deputation for yr consideration with information that if the alterations could be obtained the system would be unexceptionable. Their concurrence & assistance to carry them was requested.

A note says the clauses marked with a cross (here printed with an asterisk) were concurred in by the Maryland deputies, and that the final clause was agreed to by some of them. The paper reads:

The Council of St: instead of being formed out of ye. officers of the Great Depts. to consist of not less yn. 5 nor more yn. seven members to be constd. and appd. by law.

*The objects of ye. natl. Govt. to be expressly defined. instead of indefinite powers under an arbitrary construction of genl. clauses.

Laws disapproved by ye. Executve. not to be re-enacted but by a majority of ⅔ instead of ¾ of the Legislature

*No law in the nature of a navigation act to be passd. but by a majority of ⅔ of the Legislature

*The duties imposed upon imports by the natl. Govt. to be the same in all the States.

The Legislature to be restrained from establishing perpetual revenue.

Laws for raising or appropriating revenue or fixing ye. salaries of officers to originate in the House of Reps.

The power of making Treaties & appg. ambasrs. &c to be in ye. Senate with the concurrence of ye. Council of St: or vice versa

The appointmt. to all offices estabd. by the legisl: to be in the Executive with ye. concurrence of ye. Senate.

The Members of both Houses to be ineligible to offices under ye. genl. Govt.: except to commands in ye. army or navy: their seats to be vacated during their holding such commands.

The President [torn out] ye. U. S. to be ineligible a second time

August 31, 1787.

In the progress of the debate Mason stated all of these propositions, except that concerning the imposition of import duties, which is a little puzzling, for it was agreed to on August 31, the day the memorandum was handed to Dr. McHenry. The Maryland delegates who agreed to his proposition concerning the ineligibility to reëlection of the President were Luther Martin and John Francis Mercer, who, like him, did not sign the Constitution. The State voted for reeligibility.

GAILLARD HUNT.

Library of Congress, August 15.

SAINTE-BEUVE AND MACAULAY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The inquiry by Gamaliel Bradford, jr., in the *Nation* of August 10, concerning Sainte-Beuve's quotation from Macaulay, gives me a welcome opportunity to render the slight service he asks.

Sainte-Beuve translates, very freely but without damage to the central thought, a paragraph from Macaulay's essay on "History." This paragraph in my edition (Harper 1880) is on page 162, in volume I of the "Miscellaneous Works." It begins: "No picture, then, and no history, can present us with the whole truth; *but those are the best pictures and the best histories which exhibit such parts of the truth as most nearly produce the effect of the whole,*" etc.

CHARLES H. GENUNG.

Nepaug, Litchfield County, Conn., August 10.

THE GALVESTON PLAN OF GOVERNMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The widespread interest in municipal reform and the pronounced tendency to experiment with the commission form of city government have given especial importance to the Galveston Plan—which has operated with notable success since 1901. It is somewhat unfortunate, therefore, that the two works of reference issued this year which will probably be most relied upon for a compendious statement of the Galveston Plan—the new Britannica and The American Year Book—leave the subject with some errors and ambiguities.

Concerning the evolution of the present Galveston charter, the Encyclopædia Britannica says:

The city's commercial experts, the Deep Water Commission, . . . drew up a charter providing for government by a board of five appointed by the Governor of the State. A compromise measure making three members appointees of the Governor and two elected at large by the voters of the city was in force for a time, but was declared unconstitutional. A third charter was adopted providing for five commissioners, chosen by the people . . .

Bearing in mind the inexorable limitations of space with which encyclopædia writers contend, it is perhaps gratuitous to cavil at this; yet in so far as it suggests that the first charter was ever in operation, or that the compromise charter was the result of dissatisfaction of Galveston citizens with the first one, it is inaccurate. The fact is that the first charter failed of passage in the State Legislature because it was thought to violate the right of Galveston to local self-government, and the second was granted as a legislative compromise.

Passing to a description of the Galveston government, the Encyclopædia says:

The legislative power is vested in the commission as a whole, over whose meeting the Mayor-President presides; he has no vote save in the event of a tie, and has no veto power. . . .

The error here consists in denying the Mayor the right to vote. According to the charter his voting privilege is exactly on a parity with that of the other commissioners.

The ambiguity in The American Year Book arises from the writer's discussing under the caption, "The Galveston Plan," general features of commission government, notwithstanding the fact that his previous caption is "The Commission System." After a brief paragraph on Galveston he gives President Eliot's definition of commission government, and then in the following paragraph says:

Significant features of the plan as set forth by its advocates (in this instance the analysis of the Charleston Community Club is utilized) in addition to those already mentioned are [among others]:

Power to initiate desired legislation reserved in the people . . . this right being known as the initiative:

Power to call for a public vote on any measure adopted by the commission, before given effect as law, reserved in the people —this being known as the referendum;

Power at any time to make any member of the commission stand for reëlection reserved in the people—this being known as the recall.

It would be an error of fundamental importance to attribute these provisions to the Galveston charter. The people have no power of initiating legislation, except in so far as any citizen may offer suggestions to the commissioners. There is no provision for a general referendum, but in making contracts involving the expenditure of sums above five hundred dollars, the commissioners must advertise and award the contract by majority vote to the lowest responsible bidder, and no franchise can be granted before full publication on three several days of its exact terms. And the charter provides for no recall; commissioners may be removed by judicial process alone before the regular courts. To this thoughtful citizens of Galveston are inclined to credit much of the success of their government.

I would not be understood as saying that the Year Book ascribes these features to the Galveston government, but a reader who had not previously studied the Galveston charter might easily gain the impression that it does so ascribe them.

EUGENE C. BARKER.

University of Texas, August 17.

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THE HON. CHARLES PINCKNEY, LL.D.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Of late years, much attention has been given by experts in American history to a study of the career of Charles Pinckney, one of the delegates from South Carolina to the Philadelphia Convention of 1787. I am not aware, in this connection, that any scholar has ever called attention to the fact that there are in existence two slightly different title pages to Pinckney's well-known pamphlet which first appeared in print soon after the Convention adjourned in September, 1787. The title of the pamphlet, as listed by Joseph Sabin in his "Dictionary of Books relating to America" (xv, 128), reads:

Observations on the Plan of Government submitted to the Federal Convention, in Philadelphia, on the 28th of May, 1787. By Mr. Charles Pinckney, Delegate from the State of South-Carolina. Delivered at different Times in the course of their Discussions. *New York: Printed by Francis Childs.* [1787] Sm. 4to, pp. 27.

The late Paul Leicester Ford, in his "Pamphlets on the Constitution of the United States" (1888), p. 419, gives almost the same title, but has this variation:

By the Hon. Charles Pinckney, Esq., L.L.D., Delegate, etc.:

The pamphlet described by Sabin is to be found in the Boston Athenæum Library; that of Ford in both the Yale Library at New Haven and the Watkinson Library at Hartford. A page-by-page comparison of the texts of the two pamphlets shows no differences of language. It is clear that for some reason two slightly differing title-pages were printed. Why should the "L.L.D." have been added in one case and not in the other?

In a vain effort to answer this question several months ago, I was able to obtain one item of information from Dr. E. C. Richardson, librarian of Princeton University, which has some slight historic significance. It appears that the degree of LL.D. was voted to Pinckney by the authorities of the College of New Jersey, under date of April 18, 1787, about a month before the assembling of the Convention at Philadelphia. The transcript of the record reads:

The board considering the literary character and reputation of the Honorable Charles Pinckney. Esqr. delegate to Congress from the State of South Carolina Resolved That the degree of Doctor of Laws be conferred on the said Charles Pinckney Esqr., and that the president of the board prepare and forward to him a diploma of his degree.

This looks very much as though Pinckney's degree was probably conferred *in absentia*. The supposition is strengthened by the fact that at the regular commencement exercises which took place on the following September 26, 1787, there was no mention of Pinckney's name. On the preceding day the board, according to the Princeton records, voted the doctor of laws degree to James Madison; and this degree was duly conferred on Madison on the 26th, as the account of the exercises which appeared in the *Pennsylvania Packet and Daily Advertiser* of Saturday, October 6, 1787, clearly indicates. Charles Pinckney, it is worth recalling, was born in 1758. He was consequently about twenty-nine years of age. He was not quite the youngest member of the famous convention, for Jonathan Dayton of New Jersey was born in 1760, and John F. Mercer of Maryland in 1759. But it is curious that he should have been deemed worthy of the degree before Madison.

HENRY BARRETT LEARNED.

South Manchester, Conn., August 10.

ANACHRONISM IN THACKERAY'S "ESMOND."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of July 27 you published a communication from W. E. A. Axon, in which he points out that in "Esmond" Thackeray makes one of the characters refer to Peter Wilkins and his "Glawrie," though this was not published till 1750, the date of the action being 1712. I had already drawn attention to this anachronism in the Introduction I wrote for the edition of "Esmond" published by George Allen in 1896, p. xxvi, but I there suggested that some sort of a defence might be made by remembering that Col. Esmond is supposed to be writing his history in old age, somewhere in the "50's" of the eighteenth century. The lapse might thus be a failure in Col. Esmond's memory rather than an anachronism in Thackeray's presentation. In the same Introduction, however, I pointed out two or three other slight inaccuracies; so perhaps this defence of Thackeray is too subtle.

JOSEPH JACOBS.

Yonkers, N. Y., August 15.

Literature

THE AMERICAN CONSTITUTION.

The Origin and Growth of the American Constitution. By Hannis Taylor. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $4 net.

This is neither a textbook of constitutional law nor, in the usual sense, a constitutional history; but rather, as the elaborate title-page declares, "an historical treatise in which the documentary evidence as to the making of the entirely new plan of Federal government embodied in the existing Constitution of the United States is, for the first time, set forth as a complete and consistent whole." The "entirely new plan" in question, that of a Federal Union with adequate financial powers, appears to have been first clearly set forth by Pelatiah Webster, in a pamphlet entitled "A Dissertation on the Political Union and Constitution of the Thirteen United States of North America," printed at Philadelphia in February, 1783. The recent reprint of this interesting document, and its wide dissemination through the pages of the *Congressional Record*, have called attention, virtually for the first time, to what is undoubtedly the most important single documentary anticipation of the Constitution; and places Webster, hitherto known chiefly as a writer on finance, in the front rank of early American publicists.

Mr. Taylor undertakes to show, by elaborate and detailed study, the indebtedness of Hamilton, Madison, and Pinckney to Webster's pamphlet. The evidence is not, indeed, direct, since no one of these three statesmen explicitly acknowledged Webster as the source of his suggestions; nor was the pamphlet apparently a subject of discussion in the convention. On the other hand, the significant points of correspondence between Webster's proposals and the Constitution, the absence of any similar plan in the period between 1781 and 1786, and the prominence of Webster in public life, are elements in an argument which, as a whole, may fairly be regarded as conclusive. At any rate, the story of the origin of the Constitution must henceforth be told in the light of what Mr. Taylor very properly regards as a discovery; and for his own connection with that discovery he is entitled to hearty praise.

It would be gratifying if equal commendation could be given to the workmanship of the volume as a whole, or to the treatment of its other important topics; but at these points approval must at times be seriously qualified. Doubtless it is too much to expect that Mr. Taylor should openly reject the theory of "unbroken political development" of American institutions from Anglo-Saxon times, set forth so prominently in his well-known work on the English Constitution; but it is at least surprising to find that theory, no longer held by any considerable number of scholars, put forward again here in its baldest form, as the historical basis of an elaborate chapter on the "evolution of the typical American State." Once he gets past the days of barbarian beginnings, Mr. Taylor is on surer ground: he knows his English history pretty well, and draws his information, more largely than in his earlier work, from primary sources. He does well, for example, to point out (p. 78 *et seq.*) that the prevailing constitutional theory in England as to the rights of the subject, at the time the American Union was formed, was that stated by Blackstone, in which were embodied the far-reaching results of the revolutions of 1640 and 1688; and not the older theory of Coke, which embodied the earlier ideas of royal prerogative. He very properly criticises the Supreme Court, in such earlier cases as Davidson vs. New Orleans, for its historical error at this point.

One cannot but wish that Mr. Taylor had taken pains to fortify himself as well in American history as he has in the history of England, and had read with more care some of the documents which he cites; though possibly too much thoroughness should not be expected of an author whose reliance seems to have been, almost exclusively, on a handful of secondary narratives. It is wide of the mark, for example, to say (p. 97) that the Massachusetts charter

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of 1629 "organized the group of New England settlements into a corporation," or that the charter "was in fact nothing more than a recognition of a preëxisting state of things." Nor does it accord with the history of Connecticut and Rhode Island to imply (p. 98) that the continuance of their charters until 1818 and 1842, respectively, was because they were "so completely adequate" to the needs of those commonwealths. The Stamp Act was passed in March, not in February, 1765; and of the coercive acts of 1774, only one, the Boston Port Act, and not all four, was passed in March (pp. 124, 125). Moreover, the Massachusetts Government Act did not "suspend the charter" of the colony; nor did the Administration of Justice Act legalize the transfer of criminal cases to England any more than to another colony (p. 126). The preliminary articles of peace with England were signed November 30, 1782, and the cessation of hostilities was declared January 20, 1783: Mr. Taylor (p. 156) reverses the process. The brief account of John Rutledge's activity during the Revolution (p. 200) is, in the connection in which it is introduced, misleading, and singularly inadequate for "the foremost statesman and jurist of his time south of Virginia." There is more, unfortunately, of such looseness and inaccuracy. Extraordinary is Mr. Taylor's treatment of the Dred Scott case: he ignores almost entirely the argument of Curtis's dissenting opinion, speaks of a State and a Territory as though they were on the same footing as regards the status of slavery in them, and implies that the question of the right of the Supreme Court to abolish slavery was before the court. Another example of inexcusable negligence in dealing with documents is the statement (p. 305) that the Sedition Act of 1798 was devised in part "to define more exactly the law of treason." The act has nothing to do with treason, which, as Mr. Taylor must know, is conclusively defined by the Constitution. It will be news to students that Jefferson, "at the special request" of Monroe, "wrote the so-called Monroe Doctrine." The doctrine was at least a generation old when Monroe gave it definitive proclamation; and Mr. Taylor's note, moreover, is not borne out by the extracts which he later gives from Jefferson's letters (pp. 390, 391).

Mr. Taylor's style is, in general, both discursive and repetitious. There are some suggestions of haste, as where a long passage on pp. 76, 77 is repeated almost verbatim on pp. 362, 363; while the allusion to the negro problem and Booker T. Washington, on p. 376, is simply lugged in. The main thing, however, is not faulty diction or errors of fact, but the treatment of the subject as a whole. With the exception of the portions which deal especially with Webster's pamphlet, Mr. Taylor's contribution to the literature of American Constitutional history is not weighty. His views, sound enough in the main on most of the better-known topics, are conventional, presenting little novelty either in substance or in form; while at a number of points where there has long been need of more light, his pages shed no illuminating rays. In his laudable desire to make clear the importance of Webster's proposals, he tells us next to nothing of the indebtedness of the Federal Constitution to the existing institutions and practices of the States. The great work of Hamilton in laying down, in his opinion on the constitutionality of a national bank, some of the most important foundations of American constitutional law, is not noticed; nor is attention directed to the reaction of economic and political growth upon the development of constitutional interpretation.

The crucial test of a writer on the American Constitution is his treatment of constitutional questions since the civil war. Mr. Taylor rightly sees in the decision of the Supreme Court in Texas vs. White the culminating point in the long struggle between nationalism and particularism; but he does not seem to us to recognize in that decision, with equal clearness, the watershed, so to speak, between the old constitutional law and the new. From the standpoint of a sound jurisprudence, as distinguished from mere case law, nothing is more ominous to-day than the frank inability of lawyers to forecast, from a scrutiny of the opinions of the Supreme Court, what that august tribunal is likely to do next. Mr. Taylor is not blind to this dilemma; but his only hope of escape, apparently, from the limitations of a written instrument proverbially hard to amend, is to throw himself unreservedly into the arms of "judge-made" law. "If the histories of Roman and English law prove anything clearly," he writes (p. 449), "it is the fact that as the relations of advancing societies become more complex, it is the trained hand of the jurisconsult rather than that of the legislator that must solve the finer problems that arise out of them"; and he goes on to express with fervor his confidence that the Supreme Court, which, save in the Dred Scott case, has never failed thus far, will continue to do all things well. The trouble is, of course, that neither Roman nor English jurists ever felt themselves constrained to stretch a written Constitution to cover cases not within its purview, and that, in England at least, the courts have not undertaken to relieve Parliament of its fundamental obligation to legislate intelligently. We wish very much that, since Mr. Taylor has essayed to enter both fields, his valuable contribution to the documentary history of the Constitution had been balanced by equally suggestive work in the field of constructive jurisprudence.

CURRENT FICTION.

Nonsense Novels. By Stephen Leacock. New York: John Lane Co.

The writer of these skits prefaces them, not with an apology, but with a defiance. "The reviewers of his previous work of this character," he complains, "have presumed, on inductive grounds, that he must be a young man from the most westerly part of the Western States, to whom many things might be pardoned as due to the exuberant animal spirits of youth." This, we learn, is not true. No improvement is to be looked for with advancing years. "All that education could do in this case has been tried and has failed. As a professor of political economy in a great university, the author admits that he ought to know better." On the whole, the admission is timely. A slave of the dismal science may be pardoned much for indulging in a literary spree on occasion. Mere exuberance ought not to be held up against him. But after all, a work of humor, if it is to have any sort of carrying power, must be under control. Too often the fun of this McGill professor is nothing above facetiousness or horseplay. It is the kind of book of which one instinctively says, "It ought to have been mighty good, but somehow——." The book belongs to the general order of Bret Harte's "Condensed Novels," or of Mr. Seaman's "Borrowed Plumes." But it is clear over the borderline between parody and travesty, and often the author's love of nonsense for its own sake removes the last faint traces of semblance. The alliterative titles give an impression of monotony, however, of which the volume is not guilty. The detective story, the psychic research study, the historical romance, the sea yarn, the story of domestic pathos, and not a few other types of fiction are touched off with more or less effect. As we have suggested, the chief fault in the book is lack of restraint. The fun-maker has a quaint and original knack of his own, if he only would not let it run away with him. The final sketch in the collection, "The Man in Asbestos," is a clever "Looking Backward" fantasy, a little out of place between these covers.

The Ashes of a God. By F. W. Bain. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

To the remarkable series of Hindu stories, begun ten years ago with "A Digit of the Moon," Mr. Bain has now added a ninth volume. Here again we move in the mystic glamour of the East, watching, from the divine height of Siva's wisdom, the relentless working of *karma* from birth to birth through countless reincarnations. The keynote

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of the whole story is "the vivification of the ashes of *smara*," which means both "memory" and "love." The tale begins on an old theme—a faithful wife (the more pathetic because blind) hastily misjudged and deserted by her husband, who, in Hindu fashion, proceeds by asceticism to pile up merit so that the very gods tremble before him. Aided by a sea-nymph's wit, Indra, in the form of an elephant into which the supposed seducer of the wife is imagined to have entered, tells the story in all its truth within the ascetic's hearing; and bit by bit, as the tale goes on, there awakens in him *smara*—love and remembrance mingled. With the revivification of human longing and regret his store of merit vanishes, and for his unworthy motives in accumulating it merely to change a world in which he had suffered imaginary wrong, he is condemned to fall lower and lower in each of his manifold rebirths.

In outline and in concept "The Ashes of a God" is the equal of any of its predecessors; yet since it purports to be a translation not merely from Sanskrit, but from the highly artificial style termed *kāvya*, beside which the Spanish *estilo culto* or the English Euphuism is a child's first primer, by *kāvya* canons it should be judged. From this point of view the present volume is not entirely satisfactory. The wealth of simile and other embellishment that has thus far lent such charm to the series here runs in a distinctly thinner vein, although, from the Indian point of view, such adornment is far more vital than subject matter. Some passages (notably the closing lines on the nature of real love) have a Western rather than an Oriental ring.

Hitherto not the least attractive portions of Mr. Bain's books have been his prefaces. It is the more disappointing, then, to find him here going out of his way to scold at "Xenophanes and Plato, St. Paul, St. Augustine, and other shallow politicians"; to throw a stone at Mr. Kipling; and to revile and belittle Christian missionaries and their religion.

The Casement. By Frank Swinnerton. New York: Duffield & Co.

Paul Trevell, just taken into partnership by Robert Burton, comes to his friend's home for the week-end. As Burton's wife, Olivia, and her sister, Loraine, are waiting for them, the latter, moved by something in Olivia's mood, asks insistent questions, and learns that she had loved Trevell before marrying Burton. This knowledge, and still more the consciousness of the situation thus created, almost upset the younger sister, but the arrival of Paul and the unsuspecting Robert prevents either hysterics or further questions. At first, Loraine silently accuses Trevell for allowing himself to be put into what she fears may be a perilous position, but the partnership makes it impossible that there should not be more than one of these visits. Besides these four characters there is only one other, very different from any of them, who becomes associated with the house of Burton & Trevell. His part in the story is distinctly minor, but he is by no means an obscure personage. With much of originality in his creation of characters, Mr. Swinnerton has pronounced fancy for situations that shall be quite as original, and this leads him to the border-line of plausibility here-and there. Yet there is a welcome lack of apparent straining after effect in this novel, and with its outcome his readers will doubtless be thoroughly satisfied, even if it has been almost in sight from the beginning.

The Garden of the Sun. By Capt. T. J. Powers. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.

Two things distinguish this story from the general run of military novels. One is the vivacity of the dialogue, the other is the beauty of its descriptive passages. Not that it is lacking in action—there is battle, murder, and sudden death enough to stir the most jaded reader of romance. The scene is laid in the Philippine Islands and the important male characters, with one exception, are officers of the American army. This exception is Tom Bennett, a rich *roué*, who is touring the world in his yacht with his unhappy young wife and her sister. Bennett and his party are attacked by Moro pirates in the Sulu Sea and rescued by Capt. Ballard and his men. Later they visit the island of Jolo, where Capt. Ballard is stationed. Between him and Barbara, Bennett's wife, a strong friendship arises which develops into love. The story of the relations of these two attractive and well-drawn characters is varied by clever pictures of the island life, of dances, of flirtations, of drinking bouts, and of skirmishes with hostile natives. Many real and interesting types are introduced, among them a wandering dancing girl, who calls herself La Belle Syria, but is, in spirit and in language, redolent of New York's gay irresponsibility. She uses expressive slang and is a charming, amusing creature. But her place in the novel is not solely that of the comic relief. She is partly responsible for the drunken brawl in which Bennett receives the wound which causes partial paralysis. His helpless condition brings back his wife, who had resolved to leave him. But the story does not end here. New complications ensue, in which both Bennett and Ballard are severely tested and from which they emerge heroically. The final chapters of the book, containing a strong and unexpected dénouement, are admirable pieces of dramatic writing. They form a fitting climax to a novel which deserves serious attention as an important contribution to modern American fiction. Capt. Powers should be given especial credit for his resistance to two temptations. In the first place, although writing of Anglo-Saxon soldiers residing among Orientals, he keeps absolutely clear of the Kiplingesque. In the second place, he describes tropical nature without the sensuous extravagance beloved of Robert Hichens.

SUMMARY OF KANT'S PHILOSOPHY.

Kant and His Philosophical Revolution. By R. M. Wenley. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.

The plan of the series entitled The World's Epoch-Makers, to which this volume belongs, calls for the retelling of a number of oft-told tales. It involves, also, certain illusions of historical perspective. Most "epochs," even in a single province of culture, have many "makers"; and their makers do not always live in the same or even in the next preceding age. Spinoza, for example, who had been dead above a century, affected the thought of the generation after 1785 not a whit less freshly and deeply than did Kant; his was one of those Arethusa-philosophies that run long underground before they suddenly well up as living influences. Revivals, in a word, are no less important than new productions in the history of ideas. But a series of books on "epoch-makers" is likely to ignore revivals, just as it is likely to ignore the main problem concerning the genesis of any new movement of thought—the problem, namely, why and how the diverse innovating influences at work at the time combined with, limited, and modified one another. Kant might have made an epoch in philosophy, even if (among others) Spinoza and Bruno had not been, in a certain important sense, his contemporaries; but it would probably have been a very different epoch from that which, in fact, followed. Studies of the great intellectual revolutions, when by a predetermined plan they are compelled largely to disregard such considerations as these, can hardly fail to be somewhat misleading.

Yet the scheme of such a series suggests at least one especially interesting and rather neglected inquiry. It is that concerning the causes of the vogue and influence of those writers who have "stamped themselves upon their age," and concerning the processes by which great philosophical reputations grow—or decay. It is not necessarily by the profundity of their doctrines that great thinkers gain intellectual dominion over a whole generation. Still less is it by the clarity of their ideas or the cogency of their reasonings; for the eminence of some philosophers is largely

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based upon a certain awful obscurity; and with any influence that reaches beyond expert philosophical circles, niceties of argument have, it is to be feared, less to do than most philosophers like to suppose. It is not always even the novelty of a conception that renders it epoch-making; for not a few "revolutionary" ideas have owed their potency to the fact that several little-regarded and unremembered men have by much iteration rid those ideas of the too-keen edye of their novelty, before the one man came who was to make them a universal possession—and thereafter to pass for their originator. Thus the exposition of the meaning and merits of a philosopher's teaching is not necessarily equivalent to an explanation of his influence and his place in history. An understanding of the latter would presuppose not merely a study of the writer himself, but of the reactions of both his disciples and his adversaries upon his ideas, and a determination of the precise factors in his doctrine which most effectually appealed to the intellectual presuppositions and the imaginative needs of the age which he influenced. Such an inquiry would be of especial value in the case of a writer like Kant, who presented, not one idea, but a vast medley of conceptions poorly excogitated and imperfectly harmonized. A searching and detailed analysis of the causes of the amazingly great and rapid vogue of the "Critical Philosophy," and of the growth of Kant's fame, would be an uncommonly interesting contribution to the psychological interpretation of the history of thought.

Professor Wenley, whose learning would have qualified him for the task, has not chosen to undertake this inquiry on any considerable scale. His book concludes, indeed, with a short chapter on the reception and diffusion of the Kantian doctrine; but for the most part it merely does over again in a competent manner what has often been done before. The best and freshest part of the volume is that which seems least pertinent to the present series—the account of Kant's life, character, and social environment, to which a full third of the work is devoted. The story has seldom been so well told. Professor Wenley puts before us chiefly the Kant of his prime and middle life, not the serio-comic valetudinarian of Heine's famous picture. Good use is made of recent German studies concerning Kant's personal history. The exposition of the system presents not much that is novel or noteworthy. Such slight criticism as is offered is chiefly of a sort that British neo-Hegelianism has made familiar. Some traditional errors and exaggerations are repeated, notably the usual over-estimate of the originality and historic importance of Kant's "Theory of the Heavens" of 1755.

The Life of George Joachim Goschen. By Arthur D. Elliot. 2 vols. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $7 net.

When Lord Goschen published in 1903 the Life of his German grandfather, John Morley wrote to tell the author how much he liked the book, saying, "it is graphic, objective, vivid, cheerful, just as a biography ought to be." Only one or two of those adjectives, and that with qualification, could be applied to Mr. Elliot's Life of Lord Goschen himself. It is a dignified and discreet performance, written without undue partisan heat—though the biographer makes no concealment of his strong political convictions and argues them rather needlessly—but it is so "objective" as to leave on the reader the impression that Goschen was, indeed, a full-blooded and efficient statesman but a somewhat shadowy man. So few are the touches that could be called *intime* that the deliberate purpose seems to have been to write only of the public man. Exception made of the first chapter, Early Years, which very happily and instructively describes ancestry and education, and shows how an ideal strain derived from Weimar blended in Goschen with a hard English matter-of-factness, nowhere in the two volumes does one find much of his private life or personal interests. He was a man of reading and of wit, a chosen companion of choice spirits, but all this is barely hinted at. The biography is one of the Member of Parliament, the Minister, the first Viscount Goschen, not of George Goschen the man.

Thus self-limited, the work has much to commend it, and is a real contribution to English political biography and to the history of English parties during the past thirty years. The rôle played by Goschen was never first, but was one of great distinction. His City training, combined with natural aptitudes and enormous industry, early gave him an authority in finance which he held throughout his life. In his last years he could point to the fact that Consols, which he had reduced from "the sweet simplicity of the 3 per cents" to 2½, were still above 90; it might have staggered him had he lived to see them go below 80; though even then his explanations of the rise in the rate of interest would have been illuminating. How sound he was as a financier, and how correct his ideas of the relations of government to banking, these pages show in their account of the Baring failure in 1890, when Goschen was Chancellor of the Exchequer, and when he resisted great pressure to induce him to come to the rescue with public funds, compelling the banks to stand together and save the situation themselves.

Politically, however, Goschen will be longest remembered as one of the Liberal leaders who in 1886 broke with Gladstone and the majority of their party on the question of Irish Home Rule; and again as one who, after becoming a Conservative and taking office as such, refused to follow Chamberlain, and the party machine which had been captured, in the proposed return to the policy of protection. These two historic displays of political independence indicate the fine quality of Goschen and help to account for his influence. He put principle higher than party and would not allow a caucus to dictate his convictions. This sort of proud maintaining of his own intellectual and moral integrity often got in the way of his political advancement, but it lent peculiar weight to his name in the two crises mentioned. Goschen was a man of moderate opinions for which he was yet prepared to contend with all the zeal of an extremist. As he himself once humorously said, he was "a violent moderate man." As such he often got a hearing where a red-hot partisan could not. These volumes naturally give many letters and extracts from journals bearing upon the two party revolts in which Goschen took part, yet add little that is new, certainly nothing that is startling, to our knowledge of the events and manœuvres of those periods. An occasional bit of characterization or anecdote lightens the narrative. When Gladstone was giving his first inklings of a leaning to Home Rule, Lord Arthur Russell wrote to Goschen about seeing Lord Derby, who asked: "How did you find the great chief when you were at Hawarden?" "When I saw him last he was much troubled by the immoral means which were used to bring about the Union; he felt that a great national sin had been committed and his conscience was troubled." "Oh, damn his conscience!" answered Lord Derby.

Toy Dogs and Their Ancestors. By Hon. Mrs. Neville Lytton. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $7.50 net.

According to Mrs. Lytton's statement, she wrote this book on toy dogs "because no one seemed to know anything about them or their history," and because "historians have been contented to repeat the errors of their predecessors," and because "editorial offices are hotbeds of suppression, and the work of the reporters at shows is so blue-pencilled by the editors that there is no such thing as criticism." This is a sweeping charge in view of the fact that nearly all her history of the dogs of which she writes is quoted, to the extent of about 200 pages, and that she rarely questions what she quotes. As to the suppression of facts by editors, she offers nothing more than general charges, except changes in articles which she has written. Possibly the wording of her articles may have been as vague as the

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advertisements she published when preparing to write the present book. She complains that she advertised for pictures of spaniels, and received cigars, crocodile skins, incubators, and engravings of prehistoric beasts; she then withdrew her advertisement from the papers and went to the British Museum, where she studied the "errors" of historians for many months.

In spite of all this, however, Mrs. Lytton has written an interesting book on the toy spaniels and Pomeranians, declaring that she knows nothing of some of the other breeds of toys and little of the rest. She concludes her investigations with the statement that "compiling a history of the spaniel breeds is unravelling a Chinese puzzle; and the King Charles is not a King Charles, the Blenheim is not a Blenheim, and the Pomeranian is not a Pomeranian at all." All this is nothing new, for it has been stated in as many words many times before. As a matter of fact, the history of the various breeds of dogs matters little to owners or breeders. A dog in an exhibition stands for himself alone. He may or may not have a pedigree, and yet sweep all before him. How to produce the type which will win is the main object of all breeders, and any one of authority who writes on that subject is welcome. In this respect Mrs. Lytton gives much valuable information. She has bred winners, and many of them; she knows what winners should be, and how they should be shown. On some minor points she will be contradicted—all breeders are—but in the main her methods will meet with approval.

When Mrs. Lytton takes up the subject of judging, however, she falls into the same error as in her introduction, for it is not only unwise, but without the facts, to say that "the whole fabric of modern judging is utterly unsound, while the club judges are bound by club regulations which prevent the exercise of private judgment." This sounds like the wail of a disappointed exhibitor rather than of one whose aim is declared to be for better things in the dog world. She gives the points demanded by the toy spaniel clubs, says they require total revision, and on no other authority than her own. Surely, the men at the head of the clubs have not set those points without considerable study and consultation. Can it be that all other breeders and judges of toy spaniels have been groping in the dark for years and that she alone knows what the dog should be? When she says that the Pomeranian is the noisiest of all breeds, one wonders if she has never for any length of time been within earshot of the collie, with his earsplitting bark which resounds from dawn until dark and sometimes much longer. It is true that there are a few noisy Pomeranians, but there are only a few quiet collies.

Much credit is due to Mrs. Lytton for her crusade against monstrosities in spaniels, and especially for her agitation against the abnormal development, or, rather, lack of development of the nose. The monstrosities in this respect which have been favored of late in bench shows should speedily disappear. There is nothing beautiful in a toy spaniel with virtually no nose at all, and the snuffling beast of this type should be extinguished. This does not mean that we should return to the pointed nose: surely there is a happy medium, and Mrs. Lytton is undoubtedly seeking it.

The book is copiously illustrated—better than most books of its kind—and the letterpress is notably free from typographical errors.

Adam Mickiewicz, the National Poet of Poland. By Monica M. Gardner. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.50 net.

Aside from the work of Sienkiewicz and of certain other modern novelists, the literature of Poland is probably less known to English readers than that of any other important nation in Europe. There is no systematic treatise on it in our language; except for articles in encyclopædias and the like, one must depend on the translation of Brandes's "Poland," a disorderly work, written with more enthusiasm than knowledge. Mickiewicz (1798-1855), the leader of the three great romantic poets of his country, and one of the chief literary figures of Europe during the nineteenth century, is only a name, or perhaps less than a name, even to professed students of foreign literature. Few of his works are accessible in our language. His masterpiece, "Pan Tadeusz," has been rendered into English by Miss Biggs (London, 1885), but this translation, long since out of print, is so bald and harsh that it gives only the faintest idea of the beauty of the original.

Under such circumstances, any book on Mickiewicz would be a boon. To the present volume, however, one can give much more than perfunctory praise. Miss Gardner writes with ample knowledge of her topic, after study not only of the works of Mickiewicz himself, but of the most important Polish treatises on his life and writings. Though she is perhaps not a trained literary critic, she shows skill in exposition, and genuine enthusiasm and sympathy for her great subject. She gives summaries and appreciations of Mickiewicz's chief works, "Konrad Wallenrod," "The Ancestors," "The Books of the Polish Nation and of the Polish Pilgrimage," and "Pan Tadeusz," accompanied by dignified prose translations of some of their most striking passages, and she narrates the facts of his life simply and clearly. His personality, gentle, generous, dreamy, filled with the mysticism that was so characteristic of his nation in its period of sorest trial, is described with a charm that must win the heart of the most prosaic of readers. The life of Mickiewicz was a most poignant tragedy. After the completion of "Pan Tadeusz," at the age of thirty-six, he wrote no more poetry. Seven years later he fell under the spell of the "prophet" Towianski, who wrecked not only his outward prosperity, but ultimately also his inward peace and the power of his intellect. A prey to mystic broodings, full of fantastic hopes for the regeneration of Poland that rose anew after each defeat, he wasted away, a man bowed by age and sorrow while still in the prime of life. Telling this pathetic story with rare understanding, Miss Gardner has made plain why and how the great poet truly represented the ideals of his people, and why he will doubtless always remain their reverenced and beloved national poet. Only good translations are now required to give the English public a real acquaintance with the master spirit of Polish letters.

Vorlesungen über den Islam. Von Ignaz Goldziher. Heidelberg: Carl Winter's Universitätsbuchhandlung.

For years, we have been looking expectantly to Goldziher for a connected treatment, in brief or at length, of the institutes of Islamic theology, law, and philosophy—as these have been moved by or have reacted upon the fundamental attitudes and constitution of the Moslem state and the ideas and usages of its inhabitants. No other Arabist has, or has ever had, anything like the same width of knowledge in these subjects as he is universally admitted to possess. And if it cannot be broadly laid down in the slang of the street that what he says necessarily "goes," it is only because he has created a school of younger Arabists, who, *longo intervallo*, are trying to follow in his footsteps. We who study these things are all his pupils; we know that he commands the whole field in a way that we do not, and when we disagree with him in details, it is with an uneasy consciousness that the presumption is rather that he is right.

Any general view of Islam, then, which he gives us is to be received with gratitude and respect. We might wish that it had been much longer, and all must hope that the present sketch will, in time, be expanded into a detailed treatment. Certainly, an English translation is a pressing necessity. Very many persons nowadays are interested most practically in Islam who cannot read German, and just as this book stands alone in German, so would its translation in English. This is all the more to be urged as it was only by an unhappy accident that such a transla-

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tion did not form one in the series of American Lectures on the History of Religions.

The book falls into six lectures on Mohammed personally and the origins of Islam; on usage and tradition, and on the development of canon law with its bases and schools; on the development of dogmatic theology; on asceticism and mysticism; on the sects in Islam; on the latest developments and the modern situation. But to each of these is added a mass of notes and references, which amount to above sixty pages in all, and which furnish a great part of the value of the book for the student. When he has worked his way through them and, especially, has traced out and read the array of Arabic references, he will have gone through such a discipline as he can obtain in no other way, and will have gained much in his breadth of view. In doing this, it will be well for him to register his discoveries in additions to the index. For it must be said that the index is the unsatisfactory part of the book. It extends to nearly twenty pages, but could easily, and with great advantage, be two or three times as long. Important rubrics are omitted and for others only a few of the references are given.

It is manifestly impossible to deal exhaustively with such a book. But among outstanding treatments that of the Mu'tazilites is especially masterly. More plainly than ever before, their relationship to the early ascetics is worked out, and the error of imagining that they were in any sense liberal free-thinkers is exposed. Their permanent victory would have landed Islam in a scholasticism even more intolerant than it eventually reached. This is one side of the constant puzzle of the East. The party and the individual to whom we should naturally look for a spirit of freedom and progress is apt to set back into an even narrower and more embittered attitude than that of the broad and unmoved orthodox. Breaking away from easy-going and indolent tradition appears of necessity to lead to fanaticism, and an educated Moslem, indoctrinated in modern European civilization, and thoroughly conscious of the weakness of Islam, will hold that there is nothing for it but to go back to the reactionary puritanism of the Wahhabites.

Another illustration of the same tendency is the fact here brought out (p. 302) that Beha and his followers often loosely called the Babites, although we should expect to find them in the liberal camp, are frank opponents of the recent revolutions in Turkey and Persia. In Prof. E. G. Browne's "Persian Revolution" (pp. 424-429) the same paradox is discussed, and the view is urged that Beha enjoined upon his followers abstention from political activity because their aims should be wholly spiritual. Yet there cannot be much doubt that a party led by an inspired and almost divine leader cannot logically act and choose for itself, and the utterances of Beha himself indicate a genuinely legitimistic dislike of the new word and idea, *hurriya*, "freedom."

On page 13, a view which suggests to Professor Goldziher the speculations of Marcion could be given a higher authority, it is fundamentally Pauline. On p. 293 by a slip the Wahhabite state is dated "ein halbes Jahrtausend" after the Medina of the seventh century, instead of "ein Jahrtausend." In note 4 on p. 29 exception is taken to the inference, from the absence of a word for "interesting" in Arabic and Turkish, that these peoples do not know the disinterested curiosity which we so strangely call "interest." It is true that the mere absence of a word is no proof; in ancient Greek, for example, there does not seem to be any simple way of expressing that very idea. But encyclopædic Moslem writers regularly divide the sciences into the praiseworthy and the blameworthy, and teach that all which is not of direct use and moment for man's life in this world or for his eternal salvation is to be reckoned as blameworthy. The good Moslem should study the useful only, and it is for his soul's peace to wash his mind clear of the merely interesting. That is a part of his Islam, "surrender" to Allah. This utilitarianism of Islam is one of its most "interesting" and curious aspects.

But, excepting whatever we may except, the attitude of all users of this book must be one of homage and gratitude.

Notes

Stanley Weyman will furnish the preface for the complete edition of his stories which Smith & Elder will issue in the next few months.

Edward Alsworth Ross, professor of sociology in the University of Wisconsin, is publishing through The Century Co. the results of his studies in China in a volume entitled "The Changing Chinese."

Ian Hay's new novel, "A Safety Match," and "A Country Lawyer," by Judge Henry A. Shute, are announced by Houghton, Mifflin Co.

Sturgis and Walton have in preparation: "Their Majesties as I Knew Them," by Xavier Paoli; "Recollections of an Officer of Napoleon's Army," by Capt. Blaze, translated, and "The Christmas City: Bethlehem Through the Ages," by Lewis Gaston Leary.

Messrs. Methuen will bring out during the coming season: "Maurice Maeterlinck," by Edward Thomas; "The Ballad of the White Horse," and a volume of essays, by G. K. Chesterton; "Old Lamps for New," another set of essays by E. V. Lucas; "First and Last," by Mr. Belloc, uniform with his previous collections of papers; the poems of Shelley, edited and annotated by C. D. Locock, with an introduction by A. Clutton-Brock, and "Shelley and His Friends in Italy," by Mrs. Rossetti Angeli.

The autumn list of publications of the Yale University Press includes the following: "War and Other Essays," by William Graham Sumner, edited by Prof. Albert Galloway Keller; "From School through College," by Henry Parks Wright, for twenty-five years dean of Yale College; "The President's Cabinet," by Henry Barrett Learned, an historical study of the growth of this institution; "Thomas Carlyle: a Study of His Literary Apprenticeship, 1824-1831," by William Savage Johnson, Ph.D., of the University of Kansas; "Alexander Hamilton," an essay by W. S. Culbertson; "The Port of Hamburg," by Edwin Jones Clapp of New York University, which describes the high degree of efficiency displayed in the handling of transatlantic commerce at the port of Hamburg; "Jesus the Son of God, or Primitive Christology," by Prof. Benjamin Wisner Bacon; "The Reform of Legal Procedure," by Moorfield Storey; "International Arbitration and Rules of Procedure," by Robert C. Morris; "Concordanza delle Rime di Francesco Petrarca," compiled by Kenneth McKenzie, Ph.D., and printed in a limited edition from type; "The World that God Destroyed," by Frederick Erastus Pierce of Yale University, a biblical drama in blank verse, together with miscellaneous poems; "Lovely Peggy," by Jack R. Crawford, a play in three acts, based on the love romance of Margaret Woffington and David Garrick; "The Poems of John Cleveland," edited by John M. Berdan, and "Theories of Solutions," by Svante August Arrhenius, Ph.D., director of the Nobel Institute, Stockholm, Sweden, being the lectures delivered before Yale University under the Silliman Foundation in 1910.

No one who has read George Meredith's "Essay on Comedy" can use the word *comic* again in the old, light-hearted, haphazard way. He has isolated the idea of comedy forevermore from the motley crew of associated ideas—farce, humor, satire, irony. He has even imparted to it something of the high seriousness of tragedy. With its present denotation and connotation, it is his idea, and his distinctive idea. This fact, presented more or less casually in the multiplying discussions of the novelist, Joseph Warren Beach seeks to emphasize and elucidate in his book on "The Comic Spirit in George Meredith" (Longmans). Many readers who have been candid enough to see the reflection of their own faces in the Egoist will question Mr. Beach's assertion that "the characters upon whom he turns the most searching light of ridicule are shown the gentle indulgence of one who has taken a wide survey of human nature, and who feels the force of that saying, *que tout comprendre c'est tout pardonner*." Exactly the tonic in Meredithian comedy is that, though it is just, it is absolutely pitiless. On the whole, however, the interpretation is sound, and the manner bright and entertaining.

The Essex Institute of Salem, Mass., has recently issued the third volume of "The Diary of William Bentley, D.D.," pastor of the East Church of Salem. Some comment upon the interesting personal qualities of this sharp-tongued ecclesiastical diarist was made in these columns upon the appearance

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of the first volume, five years ago. The present instalment covers the years 1803 to 1810, inclusive, a period during which the writer's mind was most deeply concerned with the rapid growth of the Baptist denomination, which he deplored, and the New England rancour against President Jefferson, for whom he entertained a profound respect and admiration. At one time he explains the growth of the Baptists on the rather uncharitable theory that "their rite is so definite as to make a more easy distinction in the public mind than any doctrines can, and this distinction gains a ready exemption from parish taxes." Again, he attributes their success in some measure to the active part which the regular clergy had taken in the opposition to President Jefferson. Salem for a time resisted the Baptist invasion, but on the 9th of January, 1805, Dr. Bentley sorrowfully records, "A very rainy day, and the day designated for the public ordination of a Baptist minister in Salem. It was a dark day, because we were afraid of the uncharitableness of this sect, which has been the most illiterate in New England. All the ministers were invited. I did not attend. No Congregational minister of the town was present." Two months later comes the entry, "Last Sunday the new Baptist minister in this town dipped his converts for the first time, but he caught such a cold by his indiscretion as to bring on a fever and he did not preach this day. . . . What is worse than in cold weather, without regard to the habits of people, to duck women as you would not dogs in cold weather?"

Perhaps the one thing that kept Dr. Bentley's temper from becoming hopelessly soured by the Baptists from without and the spiteful anti-Jeffersonian spirit within his own communion was his habit of taking some of his fair parishioners and going to some point along the shore, such as the Neck, or Nahant, for a day's outing, which often wound up with a supper at some house where the ale was known to be of good quality. The miniature character sketches in which the volume abounds are intensely interesting. One is tempted to doubt their accuracy when unfavorable, for Dr. Bentley was hardly the man to be strictly fair to one whom he did not like. We are sorry that a volume so full of interesting matter should not have had an intelligently constructed and complete index. The editor should also have provided the reader with more assistance in the way of explanatory footnotes, especially in the way of identifying persons referred to in the text merely by initials, family names, or other uncertain modes of designation. Not everybody in these days can be expected to know that "the wonderful boy in town from Vermont who has such uncommon power in numbers" was Zerah Colburn, though the name is sure to be a matter of interest to most readers. We must close this notice with an extract in illustration of the continuity of college spirit. "There have been some interruptions at Cambridge lately from the eccentricities of the youths, who made for the entry into the buttery and carried away articles provided for a Corporation dinner. Several youths were obliged to leave the college." We are not told that there was a strike among the classmates of these disciplined students, that the faculty on reconsideration found extenuating circumstances, and that the whole group was finally restored to college standing on the promise of good behavior for the future; but the next few entries are taken up with certain vicious manifestations of anti-embargo sentiment in Newbury Port, Gloucester, Beverly, and Bath, and doubtless these necessary corollaries of faculty interference with traditional undergraduate privileges passed unnoticed on that account.

From P. S. King & Son, London, we have "Capture in War on Land and Sea," being a translation of "Das Beuterecht im Land- und Seekriege," by Dr. Hans Wehberg of Düsseldorf. It is a compact historical survey of the whole question, with full account taken of modern tendencies and lingering disputes over this chapter in international law. The author's position is that the law of prize at sea ought to be entirely abrogated, and he expresses "the hope that, at no very distant date, under the firm guidance of North America, the Powers will pursue the course laid down for them not only by humane considerations, but also by modern conceptions of the nature of war." A good bibliography adds value to the volume.

"The Family and Heirs of Sir Francis Drake" (London: Smith, Elder & Co.), by Lady Eliott-Drake, traces in excellent fashion the family fortunes of the Drakes of Buckland in Devonshire. As the life of Sir Francis Drake has been often and well told, in the old days by Stowe and Camden and in our own day by the delightful and scholarly pen of Julian Corbett, Lady Eliott-Drake has wisely and modestly refrained from attempting to rewrite the story of the public life of her Elizabethan hero. But she does give some interesting private information as to the maps, portraits, silver-plate, and other heirlooms which have come down in the family. She also destroys some of the legends which had gathered like barnacles upon Drake's figure. It is not true that he stole a coat-of-arms from another branch of the family, nor that his second wife, tired of long waiting for her roving lord, betrothed herself to another suitor and was approaching the altar for the marriage ceremony when a miraculous stone from heaven—which is still preserved—fell on the train of her dress to deter her from unfaithfulness. Lady Eliott-Drake has worked out with great care the genealogy of her family, although, curiously enough, the date of Drake's own death is wrongly given in the genealogical table. Drake was twice married, but left no children. His heirs are descended from his youngest brother, Thomas, and it is to the history of these heirs that nine-tenths of these two volumes are devoted. The numerous illustrations and the author's pleasant chattiness will commend themselves to the less serious reader, while the pedigree hunter and the student of history will be grateful to her for her genealogical researches and excellent index.

We have no doubt that there is, here and there, something of interest and value in "Switzerland of the Swiss" (there are, it seems, still new titles under the sun), by Frank Webb (Scribner), but it has been our misfortune, during a preliminary tasting of the contents, to bite into the following morsels:

One writer affirms that the Swiss people are an example to the world and a model State. Another will say that as a people they combine the grace of the French with the solidity of the Teuton. They are amiable, but reserved; a worthy race, without false pride, but conscious of their value and merit. In other words, they deserve to be the rulers of the world, which they would govern to perfection if only allowed the chance. Thus much we have heard said by Switzers in presence of the notice and attention they receive. These fulsome eulogies may inwardly gratify them, for human nature is alike. One can never be too sure.—From the chapter on A General Survey.

The great development in printed cottons dates from 1690, and in the eighteenth century was the most prosperous branch of trade in Switzerland.—From the chapter on Industry and Commerce.

The American army possesses a distinguished general of Swiss birth, General Fréderic Tschudi, born at Glarus, who is commander-in-chief of the Pennsylvania district.—From the chapter on Institutions and Alpinism (*sic*).

But when, somewhat bewildered, we turned back to the preface and were assured that—

other authorities: Voltaire, Mme. de Staël, Hugo, Dumas, might be cited, whose opinions corroborate those already mentioned. None, however, better than the writer, in the course of his thirty years' contact with the Switzers, has had the same opportunities of judging them,

we closed the volume and read no more that day.

The second volume of "The King's Customs" (Dutton), by Henry Atton and Henry H. Holland, begins with an account of the years of famine that marked the opening of the nineteenth century. The authors soon resume their dreary annalistic narrative of events important and unimportant, without the least pretence of appraisement and analysis of their materials. The second chapter, on The Period of Gradual Relaxations, deals with the reforms inaugurated between 1826 and 1844, and in the same unsatisfactory manner, since it obscures as effectually as possible the significance of the work of such men as Huskisson. The next chapter, which comes down to the year 1855, treats of the movement toward free trade, which, it is evident, the authors do not approve, although they admit that some change in the corn laws was necessary, since "the people could be starved no longer." For Cobden, Bright, and the Anti-Corn-Law League, Messrs. Atton and Holland have little respect, except perhaps as disturbing factors. Gladstone's reforms receive only brief mention, and, except for a concluding chapter on Customs Literati and an appendix containing illustrative documents, the work virtually closes with what the authors call "a few workaday hints" on protection and free trade, which are quite as inane and useless as the greater part of the annals that precede them.

J. B. Lippincott Co. has just published in excellent form "A Short History of the United States Navy," prepared for the use of students at the Naval Academy, by Capt. George R. Clark, U. S. N., and three of his assistants in the department of English at that institution. The work has the great merits of moderation in tone, accuracy of statement, in the main, and a subordination of details to the outlines of the picture. It is free from self-glorification, and it aims to treat events with equal justice to friend and foe, a tendency which at times denies to the fleet its full measure of praise, as, *e. g.*, in the cases of

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Yorktown and Porto Rico. It is lacking in that breadth of view and that exposition of great strategic principles which a layman might be pardoned for regarding as essential in a work designed to influence the young naval mind; but as a short chronicle it is worthy of commendation.

The first volume of the Naval History Society's publications has just been issued to its members in a beautiful piece of book-making by the De Vinne Press. It contains the hitherto unprinted log-books of the Serapis, Alliance, and Ariel, when under the command of John Paul Jones, with pertinent extracts from public documents and unpublished letters and narratives, and it is illustrated with reproductions of scarce prints. A notable commentary and preface is furnished by Capt. John S. Barnes (late of the United States navy), whose unique collection of naval memorabilia, and whose intimate acquaintance with naval matters, are known by all students of our naval history. A few spare copies of a limited and numbered edition may be obtained through members of the society, or through the secretary, Robert W. Neeser, No. 247 Fifth Avenue, New York.

What can perhaps be regarded as the literary testament of the late Prof. Friedrich Paulsen, who for nearly thirty years held the leading chair of pedagogics in Germany, that of the University of Berlin, appears in a good-sized volume, entitled "Pädagogik" (Stuttgart and Berlin: J. C. Cotta'sche Buchhandlung, Nachfolger). Paulsen had finished half of the work when he died in August, 1908, and had left a clear outline of what was to follow. On the basis of the latter and of Paulsen's manuscript lectures, the book has been completed by one of Paulsen's leading pupils, Dr. W. Kabitz, privat docent in Berlin. The discussion is divided into two parts, viz., "Die Bildung des Willens" and "Die Unterrichtslehre." It is preëminently a work for earnest students.

Thomas Hall, jr., instructor in English in Harvard University, died on Saturday in Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore, after an operation for the removal of a tumor on the brain. He was born in Boston in 1869, graduated from Harvard in 1893, and for several years had been an instructor in English there.

We note with regret the death of Gamaliel Bradford of Boston, who was fatally injured by a trolley car on Sunday. He was born in Boston in 1831, the son of Gamaliel Bradford, and the fifth of that name. He graduated from Harvard in 1849, and at one time was candidate for Governor. After he retired from the active business of banking he devoted his time to public speaking and writing. He was the author of "Lesson of Popular Government" in two volumes.

We have to report the death last week of the Rev. Dr. William Curtis Stiles, associate editor of the *Homiletic Review*. He was born in 1851, and was ordained in the Universalist ministry in 1876. He later contributed to the magazines and religious journals, and was the author of several romances.

The death is announced from London, in his sixty-eighth year, of John Wordsworth, Bishop of Salisbury, who visited this country a year ago as a delegate to the Triennial General Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church in Cincinnati. He was a grandnephew of the poet Wordsworth, and his father was Bishop of Lincoln. Educated at Winchester and New College, Oxford, he became a fellow of Brasenose in 1867, was Bampton lecturer in 1881, and four years later was appointed to the see of Salisbury. He had made his chief mark as a scholar and as a theological student. His published works include a course of "Lectures Introductory to a History of Latin," "Fragments and Specimens of Early Latin," "University Sermons on Gospel Subjects," and "The One Religion—Truth, Holiness, and Peace, Denied by the Nations and Revealed by Jesus Christ," a course of sermons which he delivered as Bampton lecturer.

Patrick Francis Moran, the first Australian cardinal, whose death is reported from Sydney in his eightieth year, had written a number of works on religious subjects. One of his books is devoted to the "History of the Catholic Church in Australasia."

Albert-Léon Lefébure, the distinguished economist, is dead in Paris, at the age of seventy-three. He was engaged actively in political life for several years, being a member of the second De Broglie Cabinet, and was interested officially in the conditions of French prisons. His writings on economic subjects are numerous, and include his well-known book, "Etude sur l'économie rurale de l'Alsace." He was elected to the Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques in 1903.

The death is reported of Prof. Colmar Grünhagen, professor of history of the University of Breslau, aged eighty-three. He is remembered chiefly for his works on Silesian history, among them "Aus dem Sagenkreise Friedrichs des Grossen," "Geschichte Schlesiens," and "Schlesien unter Friedrich dem Grossen."

Science

Physical Optics. By Robert W. Wood. New York: The Macmillan Co. $5.25 net.

This is the second and revised edition of a book which is unique in its way and one of the most important treatises on physical science ever published in this country. As Professor Wood states in his preface, "the rapid advances made in Physical Optics since the appearance of the first edition of this book in 1905, have made additions necessary in practically every chapter." The first edition was marred by many misprints, and although most of them have been corrected, the new edition still shows signs of hasty proof-reading. As might be suspected from the well-known fact that Professor Wood is the most prolific experimentalist this country has produced, the pages of his book are full of interesting experiments described vividly, humanly even, and briefly, but in enough detail to permit of their repetition by the reader. For the first time these experimental accomplishments of the author have been collected and made readily accessible from their widely scattered places in journals.

It is only a short while ago that optics was a well defined and distinct branch of physics. How marked is the difference in the present idea of the subject may be seen by a comparison of the headings of the chapters in the two editions of this book. The change set in with Faraday's experiments on magneto-optics and Maxwell's electro-magnetic theory of light; and the revolution forced by Roentgen's discovery has been completed by the phenomena of the discharge of electricity through gases and by radio-activity. What with our knowledge of heat and electromagnetic waves on the one end of the spectrum and of ultraviolet light, Roentgen rays, etc., on the other, the radiation we call light is now taken to be merely a specialized portion of the larger manifestation of radiation—specialized, because if our sense of sight were not limited to stimulation of this particular kind, there would be no reason for the branch of optics as distinct from radiation. On the theoretical side, the idea that light waves are due to a material displacement of an elastic and solid ether has been abandoned for the belief that this radiation is but a form of the general electro-magnetic disturbance of an ether without ponderable properties, and this change has made the mathematical development of optics merely a special problem in electrodynamics.

In conformity with this modern view this new edition, besides the usual topics, has chapters on electro-optics, magneto-optics, and the relative motion of ether and matter. The book closes with a short chapter on the new principle of relativity first announced by Einstein. How hopelessly inadequate the older theories of light have become to the minds of modern investigators can be seen by quotations from this chapter:

> Einstein's postulate denies the possibility of absolute velocity (which must be considered possible if we have a substantial medium or ether) and consequently abolishes the ether at the outset. With the disappearance of the ether we are forced to remodel our views concerning light and electro-magnetic waves, which now become a type of energy which propagates itself in an absolute vacuum. . . . Einstein is of the opinion that the next phase of the development of theoretical physics will be the formation of a new theory of light which will be in the nature of a fusion of the wave-theory with the old corpuscular theory. . . . On the relativity theory there is no such thing as real length, either of time or space.

Minkowski develops the mathematical side of this principle by using geometry of four dimensions, where three coördinates are the usual ones devoted to the three dimensions of space and the fourth

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represents time as a space coördinate. Since we have no appreciation of figures in four dimensions, it is impossible to show these relations diagrammatically, and since we have so far never been able to determine any geometrical relation between time and space, the representation of time as a coördinate puts the whole scheme outside the realm of rationality. Where this confusion and metaphysical tendency will end no one can foretell.

As stated before, this book is written by an experimentalist, and the mathematical development is usually subordinated. Fortunately we have in Drude's "Optics" a treatise which is particularly strong on the theoretical side, and the use of the two books simultaneously, gives a full contemporary treatment of the subject.

The first woman to occupy a university chair in Germany, is Fräulein Woker. For some years she has been privat-docent at the University of Berne. She had a brilliant university career, and is now called to Leipzig to be "extraordinary professor" there, and to edit a periodical devoted to the mathematical and experimental sciences. Her own specialty is chemistry. Fräulein Woker comes of a scholarly family. Her father, a Swiss Catholic, is professor of history in the University of Berne. Her grandfather on her mother's side was a professor of theology. At Berne, she has been lecturing on the problems of physical chemistry and of its application to biology. She is an earnest "féministe" and has worked in support of woman's suffrage in Switzerland.

The National Science Association of Switzerland has just concluded its annual meeting at Solothurn. That ancient town has a good scientific museum which is well endowed. At the meeting, there was an interesting discussion concerning earthquakes. During the last thirty years about a thousand earthquakes have occurred in Switzerland. The association is about to establish at Zürich a station for the observation of such phenomena. The director will be Professor Früh of the university.

In "The World of Dreams" (Houghton Mifflin) Havelock Ellis has produced a positively attractive book, which is at once a serious attempt to develop the theory of dreams, based upon an extensive reading in this and related subjects, and an appeal to popular interest, giving to the land of dreams a flavor of poetry and romance. Much of the author's material is drawn from personal experience, or from the dreams of friends, written down soon after waking; and to this we must attribute its remarkably circumstantial character. Like most ardent collectors, however, he is more successful in explaining special cases than in making his general theory quite coherent. He adopts the current view that dreams are due to the relaxation of attention in sleep, or, in technical terms, to the cessation of the activity of "apperception," which, like the process of balancing in walking, keeps the waking life logically straight and clear and the absurdities at a distance, and in the absence of which the mental life breaks up into "dissociated" areas; and he rejects Freud's theory that a dream is the symbolic expression of a wish. Yet symbolism, he holds, is characteristic of dreams. When dissociation occurs our own deepest convictions may speak to us, perhaps reprovingly, in the character of other persons, and many dreams are purely symbolic interpretations of emotions otherwise objectless. Hence there is logic in dreams, and, if we believe Mr. Ellis, good logic. Absurdities arise because, through dissociation, the dreamer is confined within a limited field of fact. This, however, involves a rather unintelligible separation of reasoning and apperception, and assumes, contrary to the trend of all recent analysis, that reasoning has nothing to do with the limitation of the field. In the end the most important question is left unsettled and obscure, whether, after all, the dream life is a contraction of the waking life or the reverse, a poorer or a richer life. If we adopt the author's suggestion, drawn from Giessler and Freud, that dream life is a reversion to the attitude of the child and the primitive man, it becomes a question whether the evolution of waking intelligence is not most unfortunate. Be this as it may, it remains a distinct merit of the book that it seeks to make the dream mind continuous with the waking by applying to both the significant principle that, "sleeping fully as much as waking, mind is a thing that instinctively reasons."

From London comes the report of the death in his seventy-second year of Dr. Samuel Gee, the author of "Auscultation and Percussion," and "Medical Lectures and Aphorisms."

Francis Collingwood, who took a prominent part in the building of the Brooklyn Bridge, died last Sunday at his summer home at Avon-by-the-Sea, aged seventy-seven. He received a gold medal from the English Engineering Society for his report on the Firth of Forth Bridge, and had been a prolific writer on engineering subjects. He was a fellow of the American Association for the Advancement of Sciences and of the New York Academy of Sciences, and also a member of the British Institute of Civil Engineers.

Music and Drama

Franz Liszt and His Music. By Arthur Hervey. New York: John Lane Company. $1.50 net.

Liszt und die Frauen. Von La Mara. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.

If Liszt had been like most musicians, esteeming individuals or nations in proportion to their appreciation of his efforts, he would have had occasion to regard England as the least musical country in Europe. It was in Britain alone that his concert tour was a failure, at a time when the whole Continent was applauding him wildly; and his compositions have never struck root there, most of them being virtually unknown to this day. Scant, also, is the English literary output regarding him. The editor of the new edition of Grove's "Dictionary of Music and Musicians" felt obliged however, though not personally in sympathy with Liszt's compositions, to double the space assigned to him in the first edition, because in the musical world he looms up bigger and bigger every year; and now, at last, an Englishman has made him the subject of a book, and a good book, too.

Mr. Hervey does not neglect to chide his countrymen for the fact that with them Liszt's "genius as a composer is even now strangely under-estimated." After a brief analysis of the orchestral works, including the great "Faust" and "Dante" symphonies, he finds it "difficult to avoid a feeling of sadness at the thought that so many of the tone poems of which I have been writing should have been neglected to such an extent"; but he is confident that the time is now coming when justice will be done to one "who is par excellence the pioneer of the modern musical movement." That he has been so persistently represented as lacking in musical invention "is certainly extraordinary, for his works literally teem with melodic ideas and are superabundantly rich in new harmonic combinations and original modulations." Nor is this all; Liszt's influence on musical form has been greater than that of any other master excepting Wagner. It was reserved for him "to emancipate music from the thraldom of symphonic formalism and to create a new art-form pregnant in possibilities." Before Liszt, as Saint-Saëns pointed out, orchestral music had only two forms at its disposal, the symphony and the overture; now, thanks to him, it has an endless variety of symphonic or tone poems.

In an appendix a list is given of the principal compositions only, and the text, as was inevitable in a volume of only 176 pages, also confines itself to those works which most deserve praise. Mr. Hervey is not only a prominent critic; he is also well-known in England as a composer, and his comments on Liszt's works are therefore those of an expert. In three chapters, he deals with the pianoforte pieces, the symphonic works, the sacred compositions, and songs; and these chapters are the best in the book, the preceding biographic sketch and comments on Liszt as a musician and man being rather fragmentary. Particularly good is the analysis of the great sonata in B minor, which Mr. Hervey does not hesitate to call "a work which in point of originality of conception, thematic invention, depth of thought, and emotional feeling has not been surpassed by any other in the entire range of pianoforte literature." Yet Liszt is greater still in his works for orchestra; in composing some of his earliest piano pieces, he seemingly had the orchestra in mind, and it is in his symphonic poems and symphonies that his genius culminates. Concert-goers will be glad to read Mr. Hervey's succinct

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comments on these and the other principal works, particularly in this centenary year, when Liszt will be honored by more performances than ever before. For a fuller account in English of his life and works we must wait till October, when the Scribners will issue the biography on which James Huneke has been at work for eight years.

With the exception of the Countess d'Agoult and the Princess Wittgenstein, whose influence greatly stimulated the efflorescence of Liszt's genius, and whose sympathy encouraged him when nearly all the world doubted, none of the many women who were Liszt's friends is mentioned in Mr. Hervey's brief sketch. To these women—or twenty-six of them—La Mara has devoted a special volume of 321 pages, in which she endeavors to prove her thesis that "probably in no other artist's life have women played so important a part." Mr. Huneker's painstaking research has convinced him that Liszt's "reputation for gallantry was hugely exaggerated." He had his adventures, and, unlike Wagner and some other famous men, he never took the world into his confidence regarding them. But with the exception of Caroline de Saint-Criq, whom he loved madly when a youth, and the Countess d'Agoult, who became the mother of his three children, the women in La Mara's book were simply his friends. Most of them were of the musical world, or belonged to the upper nobility, and with all of them he corresponded more or less. To Agnes Street-Klindworth he wrote letters enough to make a whole volume, which La Mara edited for publication in 1894. As the recipient did not wish her name to be mentioned, this collection appeared under the title "Liszt's Briefe an eine Freundin"; but Wagner's official biographer, Glasenapp, revealed the secret. Three of Liszt's letters not contained in that volume are printed in the present one, which also includes a very interesting letter written by Wagner to this remarkable woman.

George Sand was for a time a friend of Liszt, but their hearts were otherwise engaged. Others of the twenty-six who are well-known are Pauline Viardot-Garcia, Caroline Unger-Sabatier, Camilla Pleyel, Bettina von Arnim, Sofie Menter, while the list of titled women includes Countess Laprunarède, Countess Louis Plater, Princess Begiojoso, Countess Sauerma, two Grand-Duchesses of Saxony (Maria Paulowna and Sophie), Countesses Schleinitz and Dönhoff, Princess Rospigliosi, Baroness Meyendorff, and, of course, Princess Sayn-Wittgenstein, whose marriage to Liszt was frustrated by her relatives' appeals to the Pope. She subsequently wrote a work entitled "Des Causes intérieures de la faiblesse extérieure de l'église" in twenty-four volumes, with instructions that it should not be given to the world till a quarter of a century after her death. That will be next year; will any publisher have the courage to undertake that task?

On the whole, there is in this volume much more about "die Frauen" than about Liszt, but as all of the twenty-six women are in themselves interesting characters, this is no fault. One is particularly grateful for glimpses of Liszt's life not previously given, as in the pages devoted to Nadina Helbig, where we read that while living in the Villa d'Este at Tivoli, Liszt used to take a little tin lantern and attend mass at three o'clock in the morning. Storm and rain could not deter him. "The weather does not consider me, why should I consider it?" he used to say. Of particular interest are the chapters on Camilla Pleyel, whose playing Liszt admired so much that he turned the leaves for her at a concert; on Sophie Menter, whom he called his Brünnhilde, and with whom he played duets; on Baroness Meyendorff, in which interesting details are given regarding Liszt's ways with his pupils. They followed him from city to city, and it is remarkable how many became famous. At one time the classes included Vera Timanoff, Adele aus der Ohe, Marie Jaell, Reisenauer, Friedheim, d'Albert, Siloti, Sauer, Rosenthal, Vianna da Motta, Lamond, Ansorge, Stavenhagen, and Göllerich.

A translation by W. Ashton Ellis of "The Family Letters of Richard Wagner" will shortly be issued by the Macmillan Company.

Liszt is not the only famous composer whose centenary is being celebrated this year. Ambroise Thomas was also born in 1811, and to commemorate this event the Paris Opéra has engaged Maurice Renaud and Mary Garden to give a series of performances of "Hamlet" before departing for America. Others of Thomas's works are also to be produced.

Mme. Schumann-Heink is appearing this month at the Munich Wagner performance as Erda in "Rheingold" and "Siegfried," Waltraute in "Walküre," First Norn and Waltraute in "Götterdämmerung," and Magdalena in "Meistersinger." Fortunate Munichers!

The dates are now given (April 8-28, 1912), of the concerts which Arthur Nikisch, the greatest of living concert conductors, will give in this country with the London Symphony Orchestra. The extraordinary demonstrations of Parisian enthusiasm over Nikisch last month will doubtless be duplicated over here.

Italy is preparing to celebrate the centenary of Verdi's birth as brilliantly as Wagner's will be celebrated in Germany. The greatest of opera composers of both countries were born in the same year, Wagner on May 22, Verdi on October 10, 1813.

A grand musical prize contest is to take place next spring in Paris. Not less than 200,000 francs are to be awarded in prizes to the winning clubs. Among the judges are Saint-Saëns, Massenet, Fauré, Widor, Paladilhe, Dubois, Pierné. Invitations have been sent to 25,000 musical societies.

Hans Richter has, after all, not put away his bâton. From London comes the announcement that he will conduct the Wagner performances at Covent Garden in the autumn. He will be seventy in two years.

"Lovely Peggy" is the title of a three-act comedy by J. R. Crawford, a member of the Yale University faculty, which has been printed by the Yale University Press. It was written last year for a dramatic competition, but, owing to the position of its author, was not eligible for the prize. This is the avowed and, perhaps, the only reason for its present publication. As the work of an amateur in theatrical work it is by no means devoid of merit, but it bears many marks of inexperience. The heroine is the famous Woffington, and the central theme of the story is her professional and domestic relationship with David Garrick, a tolerably well-worn subject. Mr. Crawford has not permitted himself to be hampered too closely by a strict concern for historical accuracy, and so contrives to impart a certain freshness to it, but his mechanism is crude from the opening scenes to the unexpected tragic conclusion. He introduces Garrick, Rich, Quin, Macklin, Tate Wilkinson, Samuel Johnson, George Anne Bellamy, and other historical personages, and fortifies his dialogue with innumerable quotations which prove his general acquaintance with the literature of the period. But something more than free quotation is needed to impart vitality to stage characters, and the distinction between the original and the imported matter in this piece is somewhat too obvious. The character of Peg herself is sketched with some spirit and humor, if not with much verisimilitude, but most of the other personages are mere lay figures.

Details of the organization and plans of the Imperial Russian Ballet, which will tour this country under the management of Max Rabinoff, are announced. The tour, which opens at the Madison Square Garden on October 16, 17, and 18, will include the United States, Canada, Mexico, and Cuba. The principal dancers will be Anna Pavlowa, Mikail Mordkin, Julia Siedlowa, Katarina Geltzer, and Carlotto Zambelli, and in support will be Marie Ossipova, Ludmila Goulouck, Rita Zalmarna, Bronislawa Pajitzkaia, Helen Schmolz, Stanislawa Kuhn, Stephina Plaskewietskaja, Hermina Czarniki, Wanda Mezkouskaja, Doria Barbee, Selma Courtena, and Alena Czenskiaf, as the women, while the men will be Stanislav Idzikouski, Mikail Machat, Sregi Morosoff, Francesco Trejanouski, Veronine Westof, Kiprion Barboo, Feodor Wrsynski, Alexis Kowdofski, Antonin Hermanski, and Wassili Mauntag. They will be supported by a full corps de ballet, making it the largest organization of Imperial Russian dancers ever seen outside of St. Petersburg or Moscow. An augmented orchestra will also be carried. Five productions will be presented, identical in every way with those of St. Petersburg and Moscow. The scenery and costumes are already being prepared.

Otto Franz Leitenberger, whose death is reported from Vienna, in his sixty-fourth year, wrote several successful dramas, besides volumes of stories for the young.

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Art

FAR EASTERN PAINTING.

II—JAPAN.

Japanese painting, unlike its Chinese models, is perplexingly various. It tends ever to break aristocratic bounds and become widely representative of the people, it invents recondite forms of decoration, and creates a whole school of evasion. Almost in our own day it has developed extraordinary realistic resources. Its story is a bewildering tangle of revolutions, eclecticisms, reactions. We have to do with a more fiery race, less given to contemplation; a civilization in which taste vacillated ardently after the fashion of modern Paris. Again we find odd implications of art with politics. The upstart Ashikaga shoguns, in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, take up the refinements of the Sung ink-tone manner, leaving the traditional polychromy to the old nobility. At many periods of Japanese art an excessive sensibility and cleverness prevail. Two centuries before Whistler, Kôrin represents a sumptuous and sophisticated simplicity in many fields of design. Utamaro anticipates by a hundred years the perverse languor of Aubrey Beardsley. The whole Fujiwara period, from the ninth through the twelfth century, seems to breathe the feverish ambiguous charm of Provence of the troubadours. There is no extravagance of Western feeling that the Japanese have not sometime outdone. How pale our transcendentalists from Pythagoras to Emerson look beside those adepts of the Zen philosophy, who regarded words as an impediment to understanding and committed their doctrine to abrupt and ejaculatory fragments of phrases. The brittle stroke of the great painter Sesshu carries the Zenistic mood into the graphic arts. In short, while the Chinese artists in their most audacious eliminations and suggestions made the necessary compromises with Confucian common sense, the Japanese artists are absolutists and their art seems to chafe restlessly at its bounds. Even to an eye unaccustomed to Far Eastern art, the sobriety of most Chinese painting will be apparent, whereas only upon full acquaintance will much of the best Japanese painting lose an initial flavor of caricature. Such observations are not made to minimize Japanese art. Precisely its variousness and the extravagance of its beauty commend it to us. It escapes our formulas, and through acquaintance with it our formulas may profitably be enlarged. Only a few salient characteristics of this variegated production can be treated within the measure of an essay.

I.

From the coming of the Buddhist missionaries in the middle of the sixth century for a hundred and fifty years, Japan gave herself to the assimilation of the monumental religious art of China. It has already been noted that our actual knowledge of the severe splendors of T'ang painting rests merely upon its echoes in Japan. And this imported hieratic art soon begins to assume a native character. A softer and more fantastic beauty appears in the placid faces of the Kwannon and the saints, more sumptuous forms of coloring and gilding announce a keener decorative intention; with the growth of the minor Buddhistic pantheon and the adoption of native divinities by the new cult a complicated repertory of sacred subjects and personages is added to the simpler iconography inherited through China from India. A surging and somewhat tumultuous life, very unlike the gravity ever characteristic of China, is seeking expression. Bushido, the knightly code, self-immolation for punctilio, the gossamer intricacies of Zenistic morals and philosophy, are still far in the future, but already the extravagance of new feeling is surging within the old hieratic bounds. Some flicker of the ancient stateliness of the T'ang mood will persist for centuries; its mere shell is still erect to-day, but the soul of the people is elsewhere. A vigorous collective life unfit for the isolated and inaccessible virtues of the hermitage is now to draw the artist from the temple to the highway.

That peculiar sensibility which is the distinction of Japanese character is in many respects the product of the Fujiwara period, from the middle of the ninth to the end of the twelfth century. Under a refined and pleasure loving aristocracy the fibre of the people was relaxed as its emotional life was extended. These were centuries of amazing talk, of skilfully cultivated hyperæsthesia. Already in earlier periods the roots of this ultra-refinement are to be found. The Empress Koken thus dedicated the field flowers to Buddha in lines still famous:

> If I pluck them, the touch of my hand will defile; therefore, standing in the meadows as they are, I offer these wind-blown flowers to the Buddhas of the past, the present, and the future.

We are already near the perilous brink of sentiment and sentimentality, and the Japan of Fujiwara will eagerly take the hazardous next step. Upon the fervors of this period, it would be interesting to dwell. The excited throngs which followed eloquent priests recall similar scenes in Italy and France of the thirteenth century. But the Japanese adepts lack the savage energy of the European evokers of the Holy Spirit. Indeed the Fujiwara mood is more closely allied to such organized languor as we find in the Troubadours and the Précieuses. The Land of Tenderness had been thoroughly charted in Japan some six hundred years before the geographical researches of Mlle. de Scudéry. Again there are aspects of Fujiwara which anticipate Tarascon. We read of panoplied captains who could not mount their chargers. In general, reality was being hard pressed by fair appearance. And this passing from the theological symbols to joy in appearance is what constitutes the new movement which was proudly called, in distinction to the imported styles, Yamato, native Japanese.

II.

The material of the Yamoto painters was men in collective action. Battles, pilgrimages, the bustle of civil and religious life are admirably treated in the few remaining scrolls of the Fujiwara period. And the endeavor of the artist is chiefly given to setting groups of men in their proper relation, in suggesting the joint action of the throng. Little attention is given to the individual. He becomes merely a term in an anecdote. In this respect Yamoto painting resembles closely the narrative Byzantine style with which it is exactly contemporary. The greatest exemplar of the narrative Byzantine tradition, Duccio of Siena, shows the same disregard for the form and physiognomy of individuals and the same tact in rendering the action and emotion of men in groups. In this social art Japan asserted her independence of China and renounced the severe individualism of the T'ang and early Sung styles. Yamoto painting overflowed its parent period, and during the artistic reforms associated with the Kamakura régime (the thirteenth century) and that of the Ashikaga shoguns (from the fourteenth century through the sixteenth), the native narrative style persisted alongside the revived hieratic style and the refinements borrowed from late Sung painting. The Yamoto scrolls divide into a more ornate and a simpler class. On the one hand we find an ideal chiefly decorative associated with utmost sumptuousness of color and gilding; on the other a preoccupation with effective story telling. Kano Sanraku early in the seventeenth century took up the ornate native style and reëstablished its honor. His admirable picture of the panic caused by the colliding wagons of the female admirers of the fair Prince Genji may be studied in Mr. Taki's album. For elaborate and fantastic movement it may be compared with certain pictures of Old Brueghel. The leader of the new popular or Ukio-ye school, Matahei, a younger contemporary of Sanraku Kano, is also a notable decorator, but, on the whole, derives from the simpler illustrative branch of the Yamoto tradition, of which Hokusai may be regarded as the last great exemplar.

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It seems to me the singular merit of Mr. Taki to have made clear the historic continuity between the revered Yamoto style and the too often contemned popular school. Very generally, the Japanese purists have condemned the Ukio-ye masters as triflers, or, worse, as traitors to the standards set by the priestly or Kano school. Such criticism emphasizes certain important facts. The popular school has had its defects of languor, of sentimentality, and of overemphasis. Its taste has wavered with its morals; it never has had the severe standards that have guided the Japanese revivers of the Sung style, nor yet the discretion that has characterized such uncompromising æsthetes as Sotatsu, Kôrin, and Hoitsu. But, while it is permissible to prefer these aristocratic manifestations of Japanese genius, it is obviously unfair to rule out an avowedly popular art for lack of aristocratic flavor. We do not hold it against Charles Keene that he failed to produce the "Tanagra" pastels of Whistler or the delightful mediævalisms of Burne-Jones; and I think we should be foolish to measure the charming masters of the color prints against the esoteric refinement of Kôrin or the tenuous sublimity of Sesshu. And while these humbler illustrators of Japan obviously fall short in specific Far Eastern idealism, for that very reason they represent a very precious native quality: the capacity for finding beauty near at hand and in common things. They touch hands with generations of Japanese artisans who, through imitation, have achieved style —not the greatest style, but one infinitely adroit, winning, and preëminently Japanese.

III.

The Kamakura shogunate witnessed a masculine reaction against Fujiwara sensibility, established the feudal ideal, and initiated the Samurai code of honor. Religion assumes a sterner cast. A tonic hero-worship pervades the islands. Portraiture begins to flourish alongside the old hieratic art, and the narrative style of Yamoto achieves new triumphs. A precious screen depicting the Heiji campaign, in the Boston Museum, shows the power of the military painters of this heroic age. Its triumphs, however, are in sculpture. Its painting chiefly infused a more manly spirit into existing forms. To the already ample iconography of Buddhism it adds hells of grotesque horror.

The sway of the Ashikaga shoguns corresponds significantly with the European Renaissance. It was a period when the Japanese mind deliberately aroused and fortified itself by re-perusal of the *exemplaria Græca* of India and China. The new shoguns emulated the contemporary Medicis and Gonzagas in hospitality to new thought and exotic forms of beauty. The painter priest Soami revives the Sung manner in ætherialized form, and invents the art of planning gardens symbolically. Soon the refined monotony of the tea ceremony is reduced to a code, tea-houses arise in calculated and expensive simplicity. Humble brown tea-jars become priceless for accidents of potting and firing appreciable only by the elect. The Samurai conceal their magnificent swordblades, the work of famous smiths, in simple wooden scabbards with the bark on. Beauty is achieved through renunciation.

In the Zen philosophy the soul of the time finds truest expression. Since the world is a flux, and nothing is permanent or valuable in itself, man must create within the vast illusion his own values and his personal sense of duration. Things are absolutely on a parity, equally important or equally negligible as they are perceived. A philosopher must consent to the flux for the sake of great contemplative moments which may be snatched from the universal purposeless movement. The smallest event will feed the thinking soul. Beauty must be sought where it lies obscurely. The obvious must be avoided. Amid illusion the unlikeliest places may become our coign of vantage. Our part is to cultivate a precise gentleness and expectancy, never to force things or to pretend. The soul must borrow the honorable trenchancy, the veiled splendor of the sword. Excess is the most heinous vice. The Zen symbol for a wantonly foolish person was a monkey reaching down for the reflection of the moon in the water. If he succeeds, he shatters the beauty for which he stupidly yearned. Such is the penalty for grasping at illusion as if it were reality.

With the Zen priest Sesshu, whose activity covers the latter half of the fifteenth century, the theory of the flux produces works of art, the most durable and satisfactory that Japan can boast. Sesshu draws his inspiration from the India-ink painters of the early Sung dynasty. He made a triumphal progress through China where his austere dexterity put to shame the trivial elegance of the contemporary Ming artists. Where Sesshu differs from his exemplars is in the impetuous economy of his stroke. He outdoes the Chinese at their own game of expressive syncopation. Few Western drawings are so instinct with the actual nervous tension of the artist. The landscapes and the rare figure subjects of Sesshu reveal a disciplined breathlessness. He has pushed emotion to the breaking point without losing control. One likes to think that he was the contemporary of Rogier de la Pasture, Sandro Botticelli, Leonardo da Vinci.

There is in the Imperial Museum at Tokio a Summer Landscape by Sesshu which for generations served as a model for the Kano painters. In the foreground a few velvety dots and dashes indicate no definite form, but suggest keenly the sense of trees and shrubs pushing up from the water's edge. We have the feeling of growth abstracted from individual growing things. Above, twin crags loom thinly through mist that veils their roots. At the top of the tall strip a square mass of calligraphic writing repeats the tone and in a manner the strokes of the foreground. Such a picture is essentially a hieroglyph. A trained eye will yield to its fascination and will read something of its meaning; an untrained eye will make nothing of it whatever. In other moods Sesshu is vivid to the point of explicitness. There is a landscape scroll in the collection of Prince Motoakira Mori, the geological precision of which rivals certain drawings of Dürer. A basaltic causeway zigzags back into the picture at the right. Its tip is tufted with strong cedars profiled against the sky, and a spur of rock overhangs a pagoda set on the edge of the central ravine. The gulf itself is full of mist, but tree tops rise into the light and an exquisite pine shrub caught in a crag at the left seems to beckon to its great fellows below. Overlapping ridges cut across the ravine in the far distance. The pagoda is sketched with a crispness that makes it akin to the cedars and the neighboring crag, the basalt causeway gives the sense of actual mass and weight, of being deeply rooted below the inhabited surface of the earth. In such a picture the cosmic quality of Chinese landscape assumes a more individual and intense expression. No one who has seen this picture of Sesshu can forget it. Indeed, it will take its place with actual memories of nature. I shall be able to forget it only when I can forget how the buttresses of Staffa looked summers ago. All of the peculiar restrained energy of Japan is in the painting of Sesshu. It is he who best gives form to her tenuous yet potent idealism. Of the chivalry of the Ashikaga period, he is the herald. His influence was potent through the century that closed with the thunder of Hideyoshi's drums and the desperate emprise in Korea.

IV.

Sesson and the priestly school follow the example of Sesshu at a distance, or, rather, they modify his teaching by consulting his own early Chinese models. Sesson is in his degree a great painter; so are the two earlier Kanos, Masonobu and Montonobu. These men seek the energy of stroke of their great predecessor, but their quality is softer, their manner a little less spontaneous, and except for Sesson, who anticipates certain *finesses* of the æsthetic school of the seventeenth century, the Kanos tend to run out in a stereotyped pseudo-classicism. Near the end

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of the seventeenth century Kano Tanyu made superb imitations of Sesshu, but his resonant echo of Zen painting is exceptional. The heroic age of Japan was passing. The traditionalists of the Chinese manner are becoming a stale survival. An age of splendor and ease is to pervert the Zen teaching to Corinthian uses, and corresponding to this age a new and purely æsthetic school exempt from hieratic prescriptions and Chinese predominance. With Sotatsu and Kôrin the new art of Japan is born, the art that, decadent, still holds the bazaars; the art which in its eighteenth-century exuberance captured the imagination of Whistler and the Goncourts. How far Sotatsu and Kôrin drew upon the ornate Yamoto style, lately revived by Sanraku, what hints they took from the hieratic polychromy, it would be difficult to say. In any case, their screens display a sumptuousness of gold and pigment new even in Japan. Nature was surely their chief teacher. Her lovely textures, in water, bark of trees, softness of flowers, gloss of gourd and fruit, glint of metal and stone, they studied with passionate fidelity. Following nature again, they threw over the consecrated linear formula inherited from China, and painted, as nature herself paints, in lineless masses of tint and tone. Yet the art remains primarily decorative. Nature is used merely as a repertory of motives, the combination in the actual work of art is highly abstract and conventional. Certain refinements of tone and arrangement reach their limits in Sotatsu, Kôrin, and their eighteenth-century follower, Hoitsu. A kind of canon of asymmetry is attained. Compared with these men, Whistler seems merely a gifted amateur and lacking in precision of means. As a by-product, these men cultivated also the peculiar snobbisms of the artistic temperament. Kôrin himself could paint only in full dress and seated upon a brocade cushion. "I must feel like a daimio while I create," he remarked. No man has gone further in seeking remote forms of beauty, no one has better illustrated the solitary, superior, anti-social conception of the artist, and the exquisiteness of his work partakes of decadence, and his influence soon led to mere ingenuity and prettiness. In the eighteenth century the æsthetic movement is already overripe, in the nineteenth the tenth-rate attenuations of Kôrin's manner will be hurried across the seven seas to satisfy the gimcrack seekers of the Western world. Like the rococo movement in Europe, we have a transient and most poignant grace, an assertion of the worth and the underlying sadness of pleasure, an ideal comprised in fine manners and chastened voluptuousness. But the rococo of France dies with Sedan, while that of Japan survives Port Arthur.

The real art of latter-day Japan, despite the purists, is not found in the various eclecticisms and revivals, but in the continued tradition of Ukio-ye. And now the popular school, which dominated the islands for the two hundred years preceding the death of Hokusai, 1849, has in turn yielded the day. There have been heroic and meritorious efforts to revive the Zen manner, but these attempts have not reached the national consciousness. For three centuries, Japanese sentiment has been social and realistic, and it seems as if these motives must guide any artistic revival of national scope. It is to be hoped that Japan may content herself with her own tradition and that of kindred China. Could there be a greater calamity than that the nation which has produced the most splendid hieratic painting, the idealism of Sesshu, the æstheticism of Kôrin, the apostolic succession of illustrators from the pioneers of the Yamoto style to Hokusai, that this nation should consent to be artistically a provincial appanage of Paris? May that omen be averted, is the prayer of all catholic lovers of art.

V.

In our rapid progress through the art of China and Japan, much has naturally been made of national differences. I may have given the impression that we are dealing with a very special sort of humanity beyond the reach of European sympathy and understanding. Personally, I could wish that the Kiplingesque cant concerning East and West might be abated, so that one could examine real differences without seeming to imply an impassable gulf. There is, as a matter of fact, nothing in the art of China and Japan that a person really trained in European art cannot appreciate. I mean a patient, open-minded person whose eye has kept something of the adventurous quality. In studying painting in its most diverse manifestations, I am increasingly impressed with the kinship existing between the finest things of whatever nation or time. The other day I noted the wind-blown reeds in the foreground of Ruysdael's Mill at Amsterdam and was struck by a vague resemblance. The touch and the feeling, on reflection, were identical with that of certain reeds in a Kano painting on my own walls. Mr. Cortissoz in his delightful memoir of John La Farge tells how La Farge, as a fitting greeting for the Japanese critic, Okakura Kakuzo, procured him the view of some fine Rembrandt etchings. To them the pilgrim knelt and said, "This is what the great Chinese black-and-white masters tried to do." And, indeed, the far Eastern painters share Rembrandt's scorn of the unfelt and uninterpreted appearance, his passionate devotion to light and shade as conveyers of emotion, his love of the single energetic stroke, his royal disregard of mere facts, his habit of painting with his soul.

In these essays on the painting of China and Japan, I have gladly taken the risks of an admiration as ignorant as it is profound. The facts I have perforce taken at second hand, and doubtless I shall have written much to make a judicious expert grieve. But there is nothing second hand about the thrill these lovely works evoke. Any great expression of the human spirit must come home to a sensitive intelligence. The way to art is through art, and the critic is merely an explorer seeking new kindred for us. Later comes the ethnologist and measures their heads, an important but a colder process. As a belated explorer, then, my humble part is to say that this land is delectable and that all who really love their early Sienese painters, Mantegna, Botticelli, Rembrandt, may enter fearlessly.

FRANK JEWETT MATHER, JR.

"Temperamental and Architectural Refinement," a study of asymmetries in mediæval churches, by William H. Goodyear, is in the autumn list of publications announced by the Yale University Press.

Dr. Georg Loeschcke has been appointed successor to Prof. Kekulé von Stradonitz as director of the Archæological Museum in Berlin. Dr. Loeschcke, one of the most eminent archæologists of the day, is well known for his frequent contributions on Greek vase painting; and, as professor at the University of Bonn, has exercised great influence on the education of young archæologists.

René Binet, the architect, whose death is announced at the age of forty-four, was born at Sens, and studied at the Ecole des Beaux-Arts. He designed the Maison des Comédiens at Pont-aux-Dames, and among other things the Cours la Reine at the Exhibition of 1900.

Finance

THE BREAK ON THE STOCK EXCHANGE.

Since the closing days of July, an all but continuous decline has been in progress on the Stock Exchange. During this period of three or four weeks, the shrinkage in value of important stocks has ranged from 10 to 25 points. The pressure of sales has been so constant and heavy as to suggest unmistakably that very large holders were liquidating their accounts; yet who those liquidating holders were, and why they insisted on selling progressively at the decline, no one seemed able to say. There were those who ascribed the whole movement to "the bears"; but "bears" do not sell borrowed stock unless they know of real stock pressing on the market. Others ascribed it to the Government's policy in railway rates

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and public inquiries; but all that policy was clearly visible a year ago, when Stock Exchange prices were advancing rapidly.

Some other facts—an admittedly disappointing grain harvest, the absence (perhaps because of that) of vigorous trade recovery, and the imminence of a Presidential campaign—were assigned as an explanation, and they seemed to apply. But while they may have explained the general phenomenon of lower prices, they did not explain the character of this month's decline. For a fortnight past, no casual judgment on the stock market could be obtained in Wall Street which did not contain the statement that the market was a mystery. It did not do what it should have done. It would seem to be "sold out" and on the eve of a vigorous recovery; yet it would decline again next day. It would be treated to one of those "overnight advances by way of London" which, by starting the next day's market off at a rise of 2 points or so, used to bring in a host of other buyers; yet on this occasion these potential other buyers would sit apathetically before the blackboards, wondering in an idle way why the overnight support of the market was not continued. Traditions which the experience of 1909 and 1908 and 1906 and 1905 had appeared to fix as immutable principles on the Stock Exchange, seemed to be wholly inapplicable to the market of 1911.

But after all, the times change and we change along with them, and it may be worth while to ask whether some of these very traditions did not impress the Wall Street of a decade or so ago as novelties and mysteries. There was never a stock market which appeared to be so surcharged with occult influences as the market of April, 1901. It all but awakened superstition. The best explanation that the man in the street could find for the things which happened was that the Captains of Industry were using an absolutely inconceivable personal wealth to buy up and bid up, regardless of its price, every property listed on the Stock Exchange. The fact that no human being had ever done such a thing before, or thought of doing it, made no difference. How else could you explain the market? In the end, the very men who were busiest on the Stock Exchange resorted on their own account to the theory that the laws of political economy had been revised, and that the science of Wall Street movements must hereafter be based on a brand-new set of axioms.

Yet all this state of mind resulted from three things which every one could see, and which, a very few months later, every one understood—that powerful financiers were competing with one another to get an interest in certain corporations; that prices not only went on rising, but refused to decline when Wall Street said it was time for them to do so, and that the outside public was buying heavily, because of its absolute confidence in the future. There are three things in the present market which all the world can see—that powerful financiers, for whatever reason, have been withdrawing from some of their investments; that prices have of late not merely continued to decline but have refused to rise when Wall Street declared a recovery to be in order, and that the outside public has refused to buy, presumably because of uncertainty about the future.

This is a fairly close antithesis; it will at least suggest that there can have been no more fundamental mystery on the one occasion than on the other. It may perhaps be suggested that the contrast is discouraging to people of the present day, in so far as it shows an underlying spirit of doubt and pessimism in 1911 as against the confidence and optimism of exactly a decade ago. But it must be remembered that at the very moment when the stock market of 1901 was exhibiting such boundless enthusiasm as seemingly to indicate a financial position too strong for anything to shake it, the position was shown by the event to have been actually honeycombed with weakness. There were prosperous years after 1901, but there was never any such "bull market" afterward.

The causes which operate to bring about long declines in stocks are five in number. Large capitalists and holders of securities may be in difficulties of their own and be forced to sell. Foreign markets in which our securities are lodged may have been forced to realize through troubles of their own. The banks, from whom the speculative holders of stocks have borrowed money, may have been forced to call their loans. The public generally may be poor, and in no condition to invest on the former scale. Or, finally, that community may have reached the judgment, more or less instinctive, that prices were too high to be warranted by the course of underlying events, and may therefore have suspended buying until prices more close to its ideas are reached, or, in the case of some large investors, may have sold.

The first three causes have either been non-existent on the present occasion, or can have operated only in moderate degree. The fourth may possibly be in evidence, as a result of unsatisfactory business conditions in the past year or more, and of the failure of trade recuperation to begin this summer, as was hoped six months ago. The last-named cause—unwillingness on the public's part to buy because prices seemed too high—is likely to have been present in any long decline. But the point of interest at the present juncture is, that the Stock Exchange has been meeting the public's views in that regard, and offering its securities on a progressively more inviting basis. It has already lowered its prices heavily. That is what settles matters in the markets for commodities; and the Stock Exchange, too, is dealing with consumers.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Badstuber, P. A. Joanna Baillies Plays on the Passions. Vienna: Wilhelm Braumüller.
Beach, R. The Ne'er-Do-Well. Harper $1.25 net.
Beech, M. W. H. The Suk: Their Language and Folklore. Frowde. $4.15.
Bindloss, H. A Prairie Courtship. Stokes. $1.25 net.
Buck, P. C. Unfigured Harmony, Frowde. $2 net.
Burnett, F. H. The Secret Garden. Stokes. $1.35 net.
Chambers, A. B. The New Standard Business and Social Letter-Writer. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 75 cents.
Cheney, J. V. At the Silver Gate. Stokes. $1.35 net.
Dante. The Divine Comedy. Translated by C. E. Wheeler. 3 vols. Dutton. $3 net.
Drinkwater, H. A Lecture on Mendelism. Dutton. $1 net.
Edwardes, T. The Lore of the Honey-Bee. Dutton. 50 cents net.
Gettell, R. G. Readings in Political Science. Boston: Ginn. $2.25.
Gladney, F. Y. New Law Book. St. Louis: Mazda Pub. Co. $3.50.
Goodman, F. The Reunion of Christendom Broadway Pub. Co. $1.50.
Goodman, P. A History of the Jews. Dutton. 35 cents net.
Gregory, Lady. The Kiltarton Wonder Book. Illustrated by M. Gregory. Dutton: $1.50 net.
Hakluyt Society Publications. Series II. Vol. xxviii. Early Voyages to Magellan's Strait. London.
Herford, O. The Kitten's Garden of Verses. Scribner. $1 net.
Hobbes, J. O. Correspondence. With biographical sketch by her father, and introduction by Bishop Welldon. Dutton. $4 net.
Holmes, T. R. Cæsar's Conquest of Gaul. Second edition. Frowde.
Howland, L. Day Unto Day. Indianapolis. Bobbs-Merrill.
Hume, R. A. An Interpretation of India's Religious History. Revell. $1.25 net.
Johnson, H. The House of Life: Interpretations of the Symbolical Pictures of the Late G. F. Watts. Dutton. $1 net.
Johnson, W. E. The Federal Government and the Liquor Traffic. Westerville, O.: American Issue Pub. Co.
Kelly, M. Her Little Young Ladyship. Scribner. $1.25 net.
Laughlin, C. E. Children of To-morrow. Scribner.
Myers, J. F. Poems. Bloomington, Ill.: The Author.

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Painter, F. V. N. Introduction to Bible Study: The Old Testament. Boston: Sibley & Co.
Poe, E. A. Works. Vols. I-III, Tales. Crowell.
Pope. The Essential Poetry of Pope. Compiled and edited by W. Walker. Dutton. 50 cents.
Rendall, M. J. Sinai in Spring; or, The Best Desert in the World. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Reports of the Department Bureaus. For twelve months ended September 30, 1909. Vol. I, Factory Inspection, Mercantile Inspection, Mediation and Arbitration; Vol. II, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Albany: State Department of Labor.
Shakespeare's Coriolanus; Hamlet; The Tempest. Frowde.
Shepherd, W. R. Historical Atlas. Holt. $2.50.
Wærn, C. Mediæval Sicily: Aspects of Life and Art in the Middle Ages. Dutton. $4 net.
Wilson, R. K. The Province of the State. London: King & Son.
Windsor, M. E., and Turral, J. Lyra Historica: Poems of British History, A. D. 61-1910. Frowde. 50 cents.
Workman, H. B. Christian Thought to the Reformation. Scribner. 75 cents net.

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